ECA/SDA/IRD(JEFAD)/91/1.2(c)

ECA/SDA/IRD(JEFAD)/91/1.2(c)

UNITED NATIONS. Economic Commission for Africa.

# CASE STUDIES ON MEASURES TAKEN TO ACCELERATE RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SELECTED AFRICAN COUNTRIES

United Nations
Economic Commission for Africa

ECA/SDA/IRD(JEFAD)/91/1.2(c)

# CASE STUDIES ON MEASURES TAKEN TO ACCELERATE RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SELECTED AFRICAN COUNTRIES

United Nations
Economic Commission for Africa
April 1991

## TABLE OF CONTENTS


INTRODUCTION ..... 1

RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY ..... 2

OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY ..... 2

BASIS OF THE STUDY ..... 2

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY ..... 3

ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY ..... 3

DEFINITION OF RURAL AREAS, THE ABSOLUTE POVERTY LINE AND RURAL POPULATION FIGURES ..... 4

THE ADOPTION OF THE CONCEPT OF INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT, RURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND THE IMPLEMENTATION AND PLANNING MACHINERIES ..... 7

POPULAR PARTICIPATION AND DECENTRALIZATION OF THE NATIONAL BUREAUCRACIES ..... 25

NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS ..... 33

LAND AND WOMEN'S ACCESS TO IT ..... 35

RURAL CREDIT ..... 39

RURAL WATER SUPPLY ..... 46

RURAL TECHNOLOGY POLICIES ..... 48

FOOD SELF-SUFFICIENCY POLICIES ..... 52

CONCLUSIONS ..... 60

BIBLIOGRAPHY ..... 63

ANNEX: QUESTIONNAIRE ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT ..... 64

# CASE STUDIES ON MEASURES TAKEN TO ACCELERATE RURAL DEVELOPMENT IN SELECTED AFRICAN COUNTRIES

(ECA/SDA/IRD(JEFAD)/91/1.2(c))

## INTRODUCTION

1. The majority of the population of the African continent lives in rural areas. This is still true despite decades of migration from the rural areas to urban centres . It is thus still true that the development of the region must place the greatest emphasis on the rural areas if it is to succeed. Member States have come to realize that rural development must play a leading role in their development plans if they are to raise the standard of living of their populations with equity. This fact was articulated in 1979, when the seminal World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development (WCARRD) was held in Rome. Its objectives were, inter alia, the establishment of "policies to promote growth with equity, redistribution of economic and political power, and people's participation." (P.4, Report of WCARRD) WCARRD recognized the urgent need for the rural people to be granted the right to participate fully in the decisions which affected their lives, and that they should be provided with all possible means, technical, institutional and others, to be able to make the most out of the rural areas. In short, member States were urged to introduce a "positive bias" in favour of rural development in their national development strategies. WCARRD was held over ten years ago, but its conclusions and recommendations remain as valid as ever despite some progress made on several fronts to implement its programme of action.

2. The firm commitment to rural structural transformation and development by African States was further confirmed by, besides others, a resolution adopted at the Fifth Meeting of the Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs (AMSA-V), held in Arusha, Tanzania in October 1989. This resolution (Resolution 3(V)) recalls previous resolutions on rural development and calls upon member States, inter alia, to "reorder their priorities, plans/programmes/projects for the alleviation of rural poverty and make adequate resource allocation to the rural sector" and requests them to "make legal provisions to institutionalize the participation of the rural people, especially the rural poor, in all stages of preparation of plans and in their implementation, monitoring and evaluation."

3. Furthermore, the African Alternative Framework to Structural Adjustment Programmes for Socio-Economic Recovery and Transformation (AAF-SAP), 1989, places emphasis on the need for a suitable political context in which development can take place, because "basic rights, individual freedom and democratic participation by the majority of the population are often lacking in Africa (p.7, para 24) and that "the existing patterns of social differentiation and political organization tend to encourage a rather narrow base for decision-making and the lack of the popular debate over basic national development policies and their implementation" (Ibid.).

4. It can thus be seen that the political will to develop the rural sector has been growing in African member States. This report attempts to provide information on how rural development has been approached by certain countries of the region and what obstacles have been encountered.

## RELEVANCE OF THE STUDY

5. It is now widely recognized that the transformation of the rural areas needs to play a major part in the development of member States, indeed that it is a necessity for self-reliant national development with equity. It is therefore timely to provide an overview of the efforts made in furthering rural development. This study attempts to ascertain the measures taken by member States to implement national rural development programmes.

## OBJECTIVE OF THE STUDY

6. The objective of the study is to provide information on the rural development efforts undertaken by member States of Africa. By providing this information, the different approaches can be compared and thus can serve as examples of different paths to rural development. By disseminating this information it is hoped that member States will be able to, through comparison of their approaches, to benefit from each other and thus provide an impetus for further strengthening their respective programmes.

## BASIS OF THE STUDY

7. The information presented in this publication is based on the replies received to a questionnaire on rural development which was developed by the Secretariat. The questionnaire was sent to all 51 member States in 1990. At the time of writing only seven questionnaires had been returned to ECA for evaluation, a response rate of about 14 per cent. The countries which

answered were Botswana, Ghana, Morocco, Mozambique, United Republic of Tanzania, Zaire and Zambia.

8. An information-gathering mission was undertaken to take advantage of the presence of senior officials concerned with rural development at the Intergovernmental Expert Group Meeting in Preparation of the Fifth Meeting of the Conference of African Ministers of Social Affairs, 23-26 October 1989 in Arusha, United Republic of Tanzania, as well as at the Meeting itself. This was considered the most cost-effective way of gathering the relevant information for the implementation of the above-mentioned output. However, the information gathered was unfortunately quite uneven in character.

9. Furthermore, an information-gathering mission was undertaken to Accra, Ghana and Rome, Italy in order to take advantage of information available at the FAO Regional Office and FAO Headquarters. In Accra, information on rural development was also obtained from officials at the Ministry of Local Government and the Ministry of Agriculture.

## LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

10. As noted above, questionnaires on rural development were dispatched to all 51 member States of the region, but only seven responses were received. This places a limit on the degree to which the study is representative of rural development efforts in the continent as a whole.

11. Furthermore, the responses to the questions varied greatly in scope and depth of treatment. Questions were sometimes left unanswered, either because the information was not available or possibly because the question was not considered relevant or important. In some cases the data given in the replies to the questionnaire were contradictory and for this reason could not be used for this study.

12. The questionnaire is attached as an annex to this publication.

## ORGANIZATION OF THE STUDY

13. The study consists of an introductory section, which is followed by examination of various aspects of rural development based on information obtained from the countries surveyed. The last section consists of the conclusions drawn from the study.

## DEFINITION OF RURAL AREAS, THE ABSOLUTE POVERTY LINE AND RURAL POPULATION FIGURES

14. The definition of what constitutes a rural area differs from country to country. As can be seen from the following, some member States have clear criteria as to what constitutes a rural area, while others are less explicit. The number of inhabitants of rural areas and the percentage of the total population they constitute naturally also varies, though the general trend seems to be that while the number of rural dwellers is on the increase, the percentage of the rural population in the total population is decreasing. I n Ghana the definition of rural has been based on purely demographic factors. A settlement with less than 5,000 inhabitants is classified as rural, while one with a population of more than 5,000 is a town. In 1975, 67 per cent of the population lived in rural areas, which was equivalent to 5,787,047 persons. In 1985, 64 per cent of the population lived in rural areas, equivalent to 8,138,866 inhabitants.

15. In Botswana, for the purposes of the 1981 census a definition was accepted that identified the non-rural areas as all those localities with populations of more than 5,000 and in which 75 per cent or more of the people work in non-agricultural occupations. These are in fact the urban areas and the remainder of the population is thus defined as rural.

16. In 1971 91 per cent of the population, 530,228 (census) persons, were living in rural areas. In 1978, 84 per cent were in rural areas, an estimated population of 643,000. In 1981 the figures was 82 per cent, equivalent to 774,759 (census) inhabitants. In 1986 the percentage living in rural areas had gone down to 78 per cent, equal to an estimated population of 882,592. The projected figures for 1991 are 75 per cent, equivalent to a population of 1,006,419.

17. A number of countries were able to provide accurate figures about the absolute poverty line, while others did not give a definition of this indicator.

18. In Botswana, the Poverty Datum Line was calculated in 1976 and also extrapolated from the 1985/86 Household Income and Expenditure Survey, which was updated in 1989 but not published. Both the 1976 and the 1985/86 surveys recognize the following essential basic needs: food, clothing, health, hygiene, shelter, cooking and lighting fuel, transport, primary education, minimum durable household goods and a small amount of money for

recreation, social duties and taxes. The latter item is no longer applicable since taxes are not paid by the lowest income groups.

19. The standard of living assumed varied slightly between the two studies but is generally very basic and excludes, for example, all furniture except stools, visits to relatives and allowances for emergencies or old age.

20. The figures for average income which emerge are as follows:

| | |
|---|---|
| 1974 | - Pula 900.00 ($473) per annum |
| 1985/86 | - Pula 600.00 ($315) per annum. |

21. Comparison of these figures is not directly possible, because the inflation figures are not completely reliable and the basket of goods used differed to a certain extent.

22. In 1974, 45 per cent of the population, equivalent to 530,228 (1971 census) were living under the absolute poverty line. More recent figures are not available.

23. In Zambia, the term "rural" is taken to mean a sparsely populated area with very little industrial activities taking place.

24. In 1969, 70 per cent of the population, equivalent to 2,864,879 persons, was living in rural areas. In 1980, 60 per cent were living in rural areas, which was equivalent to a population of 3,403,281.

25. There is no clear cut definition of the absolute poverty line in Zambia but there is an indicative poverty line of Kwacha 20,500 ($512) per annum or less.

26. In Tanzania, in 1980, 85 per cent of the population, equivalent to 15,736,000 persons, lived in rural areas. In 1985, 80 per cent of the population lived in rural areas, which equals 17,441,000 inhabitants. In 1990, 76 per cent of the population, 18,825,000 persons lived in rural areas. These figures are estimates based on the 1978 census.

27. There is no definition of the absolute poverty line which is applied in the United Republic of Tanzania. No definition of "rural" was provided in the response to the questionnaire.

28. Morocco is divided into 859 communities of which 760 area rural and 99 are urban. In the legal definition of rural area are included the bona fide rural areas and the main towns in the rural areas.

29. The definition of 'rural' applied in Morocco is as follows: All localities are considered urban if they have a population of at least 1,500 inhabitants and if they possess four types of common facilities among the following seven: drainage/sewage, drinking water, electricity, secondary school, over 50 per cent of the working population employed in non-agricultural activities, hospital or clinic/dispensary, a court of law. Also certain delimited centres, tourist centres and communities endowed with a development plan are considered outside the rural areas.

30. The definition of rural has two components:

1. The juridical formula which is based on the administrative divisions of the Kingdom which considers that rural areas are all that is located outside the urban perimeter which in effect is the totality of the rural community.

2. The socio-economic formula which considers that the rural areas are defined by the concentration of the population in a space where there is a predominance of agricultural activity.

31. In 1971, 64.96 per cent of the population, which was equivalent to 9,953,246 persons, lived in rural areas. In 1982 the figures were 57.37 per cent and 11,717,044 persons. The proportion of rural inhabitants fell to 54.46 per cent in 1987 equivalent to 12,727,360 persons.

32. Rural areas in Mozambique are determined by excluding urban areas which are very clearly defined at both town and city level and include all Provincial capitals and some District capitals. All other areas are defined as rural areas.

33. In 1980 86.8 per cent of the population, equivalent to 11,673,725 persons, was living in rural areas. The estimated populations living in rural areas in 1985 was 11,977,242 and 12,288,650 in 1989. No percentages were given for 1985 and 1989.

34. Under normal conditions a definition of absolute poverty does not exist due to unlimited access to resources such as land. Definitions of absolute poverty do currently exist and are applied by projects working in the

emergency programme. However this is seen as a transitory situation and definitions vary according to local circumstances and intensity of anti-government activity.

35. Because of the emergency situation and abnormal conditions prevailing in Mozambique it is impossible to quantify the percentage of population below the poverty line at any one time. This figure tends to be a widely fluctuating number depending on security conditions.

36. In Zaire the concept 'rural' is defined as all areas not declared as urban areas where the lifestyle and the source of income are primarily based on subsistence agriculture or on other activities based on agriculture where the tools and the infrastructure have remained rudimentary.

37. There has been an increase in both the percentage of rural inhabitants and the number of people living in rural areas. In 1970, 66 per cent of Zaire's population lived in rural areas, equivalent to 16,980,000 persons. The percentage of rural dwellers rose to 67 per cent in 1975, remaining at the same percentage in 1980, again rising to 68 per cent in 1985, and reaching 70 per cent by 1989, representing a population of 20,286,979. It is not clear whether these figures are based on censuses, and if so on how many and from which year, or if they are based on extrapolations from one or more censuses held in a certain unspecified year.

38. The concept of 'absolute poverty line' is defined in Zaire as the line at which the household income can barely cover the basic needs such as nourishment, clothing, shelter, health care and education. In 1989, 80 per cent of the rural population lived under the absolute poverty line.

## THE ADOPTION OF THE CONCEPT OF INTEGRATED RURAL DEVELOPMENT, RURAL DEVELOPMENT PLANS AND THE IMPLEMENTATION AND PLANNING MACHINERIES

39. The countries surveyed generally had adopted the concept of integrated rural development (IRD). However, the definition of IRD and the approach to it varied from country to country.

40. Ghana has adopted the concept of integrated rural development. There is however no specific definition of integrated rural development. The approach adopted by Ghana insists that the two basic elements of IRD should

be: (i) All agencies or elements operating towards the same goal should be so organized that their activities mutually reinforce one another and maximize goal achievement; and (ii) An integrated service model should encompass all recipient populations and specifically should include those hitherto excluded o marginalized. The concept was not incorporated in the National Plan.

41. There is no National Rural Development Authority for policy guidance and intersectoral harmonization in Ghana. The portfolio for the rural sector is with the Ministry of Local Government. As other ministries have equal status with the Ministry of Local Government, they do not report to it; at best they inform it. However, a National Development Planning Commission has just been established. Its functions encompass both the urban and rural sectors. When it begins to operate, it will be the sole authority to make final decisions on matters concerning the rural sectors. The Commission will treat both the rural and urban sectors as one organic unit.

42. An integrative approach to rural development is given a high priority in Ghana. The development of the country's infrastructure is proceeding, with roads being opened up to the rural areas to move food from the rural areas and to transport inputs to them. All ten regional capitals are linked by road to the capital, Accra. Roads linking rural areas are also being constructed. The national electricity grid is being completed, and the whole country will be linked up, supplied by the power generated by the Volta Dam. The Rural Electrification Programme is being financed by the World Bank and the government. Work on projects such as roads is given out by mobilization committees which provide work for the rural unemployed. The work provided by these "mobi squads" is targeted at helping to alleviate rural unemployment, especially at times of low job availability.

43. In Ghana, communities are responsible for 65-70 per cent of the costs of community-initiated projects, while the government provides the rest of the funds. Teams which move around the country, as well as District Assemblies compile and present projects. The government has certain standards and priorities which apply to rural development projects.

44. Urban migration is not an area of great concern, since the rate of people moving from rural to urban areas is not high. Migration between urban areas is more prevalent than rural-urban movement. The average population growth rate is 2.4 per cent.

45. The concept of integrated rural development has been adopted by Botswana and incorporated in the National Plan. Two definitions of integrated rural development are applied in National Development Plan 6 (1985-91). At the macro level, 'to integrate physical and economic development planning within and between rural and urban areas within the context of the continued development of the National Settlement Policy' (para.4.60). At a more micro level the Communal First Development Area strategy is a key concept aimed at integrating planning and development at a sub-district level. (para. 3.58).

46. The Rural Development Council (comprising most of the Permanent Secretaries) advises Cabinet directly or through the Economic Committee of Cabinet (all Permanent Secretaries sitting with the full Cabinet). The secretariat of the Rural Development Council is based in the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning and thus has direct and regular access to the national planning machinery. The Co-ordinator of Rural Development reports directly to the Minister of Finance and Development Planning and has power to contact all Permanent Secretaries on rural development matters. Parliament, with the direction of the Cabinet, has the final say on all matters of national policy.

47. The sectoral ministries concerned report only indirectly to the national Rural Development Council and on is issues of special importance for rural development, then the sectoral ministries may be invited to report to the Rural Development Council and its sub-committee structure.

48. Botswana's national and district planning system is so structured that there is a high level of integration built in at all stages. Through the processes of regular and systematic consultation the Annual District Plans, six year District Development Plans, and the annual national Project Review and the six year National Development Plan all contribute to a development implementation process which is comprehensively integrated.

49. Of the latest National Development Plan covering the years 1985-1991 (NDP 6), 61 per cent of the outlay was earmarked for rural development, which includes the figure for rural development and 50 per cent of the unspecified outlay. The latest completed National Development Plan (NDP 5) covered the years 1979 - 1985. During that period 51 per cent of the National Budget was allocated for rural development, equivalent to 330 million Pula which is US$173 million at the March 1990 exchange rate. Of this allocation, 126 per cent was utilized, in figures 416 million Pula or US$219 million.

50. National Development Plan 7 (NDP 7) gives continued emphasis to rural development creation, as well as giving stress to sustained development and promoting earned income generation, especially amongst the poorest households. But, it is also recognized that for rural development to be effective and sustainable, urban areas (as well as major and secondary villages) need to be developed in order to be able to serve as forward and backward linkages to the rural areas; generating demands for the products of the rural producers, as well as being able to supply inputs of raw materials, intermediate products and services (such as tractor repair) to the rural producers. Thus, balance in both rural and urban emphasis is the key to successful national development.

51. Classifying Government's development efforts into those directed at rural development versus those directed at urban development is not clear cut. Many development projects cut across rural/urban boundaries, and most projects are national projects, designed to enhance the well-being of the nation. For example, many roads projects traverse rural and urban areas, connecting dwellers in both areas, and bringing benefits to both areas.

52. Purely urban projects, such as Township Services or Tsolofelo Development, are few in number (29). Many projects which would reasonably be given a national label, such as NDB Finances, Government Siting and Drilling Capacity, the Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory, Support to Women Programmes, etc., serve mainly rural farm households. And some projects which are undertaken in rural areas could be thought of as serving urban communities, such as Shashe Dam, Bokaa Dam, and even the Soda Ash Project which includes the emerging Sowa Township.

53. Thus, it is difficult for several reasons to give clear quantitative indications of the expected balance of development in NDP 7. However, while recognizing the above-mentioned difficulties inherent in any such exercise, on the basis of classifying NDP 6 development projects, including normal, onlending, self-liquidating, major development initiative and drought projects, into national, rural and urban projects, some indication can be put forward.

54. In NDP 6, there were approximately 344 projects approved and given TECs, at least up to 19 July 1990. Approximately because some projects entail more than one category of development expenditure, i.e., they have both normal development and onlending, as in NDB or BDC or BPC. There was rapid growth in development expenditure over NDP 6, from P245 million ($129 million) in 1985/86 to a revised estimate (approved) of P1,369 million ($719

million) in 1990/91. Although actual expenditure is likely to be somewhat less than this figure, except that additional supplementaries may add to this estimate during the remaining part of 1990/91. Total estimated development expenditure for NDP 6 amounts to P4,394 million ($2,306 million), although the approved TEC for all the projects currently in the Plan amounts to P5,061 million ($2,657 million); some of the approved TEC will spill over into NDP 7.

55. Of the estimated NDP 6 estimated expenditure, over the period 1985/86 to 1990/91, 52 per cent is classified as national, 35 per cent as rural, and 13 per cent as urban. Of the latest TEC for NDP 6 projects 50 per cent is classified as national, 35 per cent as rural, and 15 per cent as urban. Of the portion of the current projects TEC's that are expected to be carried over into NDP 7,33 per cent is classified as national, 37 per cent rural, and 30 per cent urban. As a related exercise in preparing the ceilings for 1991/92, for the existing projects that are expected to be carried over into NDP 7, a rough breakdown of the initial estimates, indicates that national projects would comprise 50 per cent, rural projects 25 per cent, and urban projects 25 per cent. The shift towards the urban areas indicated in these initial estimates reflects very large provisions for the Accelerated Urban Land Servicing and Housing Development Programme, which was initiated in 1987 and is reaching its large scale implementation phase.

56. Among a vast range of targets in National Development Plan 5 (1979-85), the following ten were some of the most important, not necessarily in order of priority:

- Rapid expansion of basic water, health, education and roads infrastructure and service provision, to all but the smallest localities in the most remote areas;

- Major drought relief programme of feeding public works, arable and livestock relief and emergency water supply improvements;

- Design and extension of the Arable Lands Development Programme (ALDEP), comprising a financial and technical package to provide, draft power, fencing, implements and water supply to small farmers;

- Launch and establishment of a National Literacy programme;

- Rapid increase in the number of places available for secondary and vocational education;

- Sheep and goat development project;

- Improved radio broadcast and information services coverage of the rural areas;

- Various livestock development projects with small farmer support components;

- Decentralization of District Health Teams to the District Council and provision of eleven new Health Centres (mini hospital);

- Various rural industrial development programmes, notably the Financial Assistance Programme.

57. Zambia has adopted the concept of integrated rural development and incorporated it into the National Plan. The latest National Plan covers the period 1989-1993. The last completed National Plan covered the period 1987-1988. Under the current National Development Plan, rural development does not come out as a separate sub-sector.

58. The implementation of integrated rural development in Zambia has taken the following form:

59. The Intensive Development Zone (IDZ). The IDZ working group decided that there should be one IDZ in each province, about the size of a district and that the provinces outside the line of rail should be given first priority. In this regard, the first IDZ was established in the Eastern Province in Chipata in 1973 followed by the one in the Kasama-Nakonde triangle area in the Northern Province in 1974 and then that of the Kabompo-Manyinga area in the North-Western Province. Selection of areas for establishment of IDZs in the Luapula and Western Provinces was to follow later.

60. The Intensive Development Zones were essentially a programme of assisting peasant farmers in selected areas to actively adopt modern agricultural practices using various inputs and production aids provided by the Government on a package basis. It was also proposed that these economic services (technical advice, production inputs, marketing, etc) were to be complemented by the social services such as health, education and community development

facilities to foster a minimum standard of living and an environment conducive to productive enterprise, so that the programme in its entirety could provide impetus to national and provincial economic and social development.

61. However, successful implementation of the programme proved difficult, leading to the abandonment of the programme in 1975. The programme was then replaced by Integrated Development Programmes (IRDPs) established in the Luapula, Eastern and Northern Provinces and funded under bilateral aid. There were also three Area Development Programmes (ADPS) funded jointly by the local government and multilateral donors. These programmes were incorporated in the Third National Development Plan.

62. The main objectives of these programmes were to increase agricultural productivity and to improve the quality of life of the rural small scale producers. Apart from provision of services that were directly linked to agriculture, the programmes also provided general social and economic facilities in these areas.

63. Although each programme had its own distinct implementation strategy, some common activities could be identified such as:

(i) the support and building up of a management/ planning systems and improvement of rural infrastructure through capital investment projects in areas where the highest benefit/cost ratios can be expected. In areas where existing institutions were strong, like Northern Province, the implementation was done through district councils while in areas with weak local institutions like North-Western Province, the emphasis was on strengthening the self-reliance of the subsistence farming communities.

(ii) improving of agricultural services to farmers through the strengthening of marketing, credit, research and extension activities; provision of input supplies; and the construction of infrastructure such as roads and bridges.

(iii) promotion of non-farm activities such as bush crafts and bee-keeping through the training of local people.

(iv) provision of water supply at district and village levels: implementation of primary health care programmes; and teaching of proper dietary practices.

64. There is only one body, the National Commission for Development Planning (NCDP) which is entrusted with, among other things, the task of planning for the whole country and co-ordination of development activities of sectoral ministries. It is located in the Office of the President. Final policy decisions on rural development are made by the Rural Development Sub-Committee of the Central Committee.

65. Sectoral ministries submit annual economic reports to the NCDP which compiles the national economic report. The National Commission for Development Planning can make policy recommendations for sectoral ministries based on their economic report submissions which may be passed as policies by the Central Committee's Rural Development Sub-Committee.

66. As a way of accelerating rural development in general and agricultural development in particular, the Zambian Government has embarked on a plan to resettle the youth who are not in active employment in two settlement camps, Kambilombilo on the Copperbelt Province and Kanakantapa in Lusaka Rural. Although the main activity they are engaged in is agriculture, this is supplemented with other skills considered useful to the development of their areas and the nation as a whole. Another target group of this programme are the retirees and those who wish to settle on the land but have had no chance to do so. To such the government has set aside land in all provinces for this purpose and it is prepared to provide them with subsidized food, medical and social facilities and free inputs for a period of one year after which they will be expected to stand on their own.

67. So far, the response is more encouraging among the retirees than it is among the youth but efforts are still being made to persuade the youth to take up this challenge.

68. The United Republic of Tanzania has adopted the concept of integrated rural development and has incorporated it in the national plan. Of the latest National Plan, which covers the years 1990-1991, 20 per cent of the outlay was earmarked for rural development. The period covered by the latest completed National Plan was 1989-1990. Of the targets of rural development in the latest completed National Plan, 80 per cent were achieved.

69. The Regional Integrated Rural Development Plan (RIDEP) approach in Tanzania was considered as the application of the principles of integrated rural development to generate specific regional development plans, programmes or projects.

70. As in the case of other large projects, RIDEP preparation typically consists of three main stages:

Stage I: Pre-feasibility study:

This includes the identification of overall and sectoral resources base, including the assessment of the region's development constraints and potentials.

Stage II: Feasibility study:

Programme formulation consisting of detailed feasibility studies of projects ready for presentation to funding and implementation agencies.

Stage III: Appraisal, implementation, monitoring and evaluation:

Mobilization of resources and review of all matters related to the implementation of the formulated programmes including monitoring and evaluation.

71. Considerable progress has been made with the preparation of RIDEPs in Tanzania. As of early 1988, all 20 Mainland regions had completed stages I of RIDEP preparation, 14 had completed stage II and 10 had completed stage III.

72. With the re-establishment of District councils in 1983/84 the district has become the major planning unit for rural development. An important requirement in Tanzania has thus become the preparation of integrated development plans for individual districts. Such plans are referred to as DIDEPs.

73. In Tanzania the Arusha Declaration provides the ideological basis for rural development policy since 1967. The Ujamaa Village approach was adopted as a new rural development strategy.

74. In the beginning, the formation of Ujamaa Villages was voluntary. The task of the leadership was to persuade the rural people to move into such villages. From 1972 onwards, however, the voluntary approach was replaced by a formal one. In 1974 the Party issued specific guidelines on villagization. All people in the rural areas were required to live in either Ujamaa Villages or planned development villages.

75. The institutional framework and legal basis for the villages were established under the Ujamaa Villages Act of 1975. The Act provided for the existence of a village Assembly (consisting of all persons over 18 years) and a village Council elected by the Village Assembly. The Council functions through five specialized committees: Finance and Planning; Production and Marketing, Education, Cultural and Social welfare; Works and Transport, and Security and Defence. Generally, the village Council is empowered to undertake all activities deemed necessary for the economic and social development of the village.

76. The Co-operative Societies Act of 1982 also provides for the establishment of rural co-operatives as multipurpose co-operative societies registered to undertake and carry out all kinds of business within the village. The membership of such a co-operative society consists of every person over 18 years of age who is resident of the village, or follows an allowed trade or an occupation relevant to the society's objectives within its area of operation as defined in its by-laws.

77. The Ujamaa Village approach adopted in 1967 as a new rural development strategy was intended to achieve the following:

(i) Development of the rural areas on the basis of agricultural collectivization.

(ii) Making it possible for the Government to provide the rural masses with basic social services and

(iii) Bringing an end to rural capitalism.

78. According to the Co-operative Societies Act (No. 14) of 1982, which re-introduced co-operatives in Tanzania following their abolition in 1976, co-operative societies are regarded as instruments for the implementation of the policy of socialism and self-reliance. Under this Act, every Co-operative society is called upon to carry out the following functions:

(i) To accelerate the building of socialism through co-operative development in both rural and urban areas.

(ii) To foster the formation of Co-operative farming in the rural areas as a means of modernizing and developing agriculture and of eliminating exploitation in the rural areas.

(iii) To satisfy the cultural needs of its members, as well as to increase their social and political awareness.

(iv) To improve the material living conditions of its members.

(v) To promote co-operative education among its members.

79. The direct attack on rural under-development through villagization was seen as a means of promoting the socio-economic and political mobilization of rural resources, a precondition for sustained socialist development. The direct approach accelerated the formation of such villages, the size of which ranged from 250 -600 households. By 1976 about 13 million people had been resettled in over 7,000 development villages. In 1983, 8,174 registered villages with a population of about 15.4 million people or 89 per cent of the Country's total population.

80. After re-establishing co-operatives in 1982, the number of registered co-operatives have been increasing. As at 30th April 1989 there were 26 registered Co-operative Unions and 5,321 rural primary co-operative societies. The total registered Co-operatives were as follows:

| | | |
|---|---|---|
| (a) | Rural primary societies | 5,321 |
| (b) | Co-operative shops | 1,724 |
| (c) | Small industries | 299 |
| (d) | Savings and credit societies | 155 |
| (e) | Housing | 107 |
| (f) | Services (various eg. hotels) | 66 |
| (g) | Unions | 26 |
| (h) | Transport and haulage | 21 |
| (i) | Joint ventures | 9 |
| (j) | Others | 173 |
| | Total | 7,901 |

81. Although much has been achieved in agrarian and rural development since 1967, certain problems have emerged regarding villagization over the course of time. Life in the new villages has for example, created new demands such as water, transport, schools, health facilities, etc. which cannot be adequately met in the short term due to poor performance of the economy. Appropriate management skills for mobilizing people and other resources in the new villages have not yet been acquired and the transformation of village production systems into socialist ones is still far from complete.

82. Co-operative problems include liquidity, lack of skilled manpower, wear and tear of machinery and plants (e.g. ginneries), indebtedness and loss of public funds and property.

83. Since July 1989 there is a Directorate in the National Planning Commission under the President's Office responsible for Regional Plans and Rural Development, with the following functions:

(i) To monitor and evaluate the state of rural development and advise on strategies to promote it.

(ii) To participate in the preparation of guidelines for annual and medium term plans regarding rural development.

(iii) To analyze regional and local government plans and advice accordingly.

(iv) To monitor implementation of regional plans including Regional Integrated Programmes (RIDEPs) and advice accordingly.

(v) To advice regions on suitable areas for investment taking into account national priorities.

(vi) To analyze implementation reports of regional and local government plans and advice accordingly.

(vii) To devise strategies for involving people in planning and implementation of their development programmes, on a self-help basis.

(viii) In collaboration with other relevant institutions to examine specific development problems affecting particular regions or areas and advice on appropriate remedial action, for example on what needs to be done in those areas which are often hit by droughts, outbreaks of pests, floods, etc.

(ix) To advise on areas or activities in which external donors should be asked to assist.

84. The Planning Commission was established by an act passed by the Union Parliament in April 1989 (the Planning Commission Act No. 11 of 1989). The

Act provides for the Planning Commission membership and specifies its functions. The Planning Commission generally is responsible for the management of the national economy and for supervising the planning process as well as overseeing the implementation of approved plans.

85. The Directorate of Regional Plans and Rural Development works closely with Departments of planning in the Prime Ministers Office which co-ordinates regional plans, and the Ministry of Local Governments Community Development and Co-operatives which co-ordinates District Councils' plans.

86. Tanzania's policy of rural development arises out of strong belief in both the equality of all people and the centrality of man as a target for all development efforts of society. Through its policy, Tanzania is seeking to create an agrarian socialist society based on the concept of the African extended family system in which people work together and share the returns equitably. As founder President Julius K. Nyerere stated in September 1967 "the objective of socialism in Tanzania is to build a society in which all members have equal rights and equal opportunities, in which all can live at peace with their neighbours without suffering or imposing injustice, being exploited or exploiting others, and in which all have a gradually increasing basic level of material welfare before any individual lives in luxury". Since the vast majority of Tanzanians live in rural areas and continue to depend on land for their livelihood, land will definitely continue to constitute the basis of Tanzania's development.

87. Morocco has adopted the concept of integrated rural development. Integrated rural development means the installation of agricultural projects which beside working on improving the value of the land, also include socio-economic infrastructure such as schools, dispensaries, roads, electrification, provision of potable water and agro-based industries to process agricultural products. Integrated rural development is the totality of the actions and means implemented to intensify the production capacities and improve the conditions of life of the rural population.

88. Of the last National Plan, over 60 per cent of the outlay was earmarked for rural development. The last National Plan covered the years 1988 to 1992. The previous completed National Plan covered the years 1981-1985.

89. The concept of integrated rural development has been incorporated in the national plan. Legislation has been enacted to establish authorities for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access

to land, water and credit. There is a fund for food production reform for the lands that were recovered from the colonialists. These lands are the basis for the formation of co-operatives which are part of the agrarian reform. The beneficiaries are landless farmers who have benefitted from the distribution of plots of agricultural land by the State.

90. The Direction des Affaires Rurales (DAR - Department of Rural Affairs) is a governmental institution which is under the Ministry of the Interior and Information. It was created in 1980 and charged with the task of co-ordinating and energizing the interventions in the rural sector by the different agents of rural development, whether they be public, semi-public or private, and to realize specific rural development projects on behalf of local collectives.

91. The National Rural Development Commission which was created at the occasion of the preparation of the economic and social development plan 1988-1992, has worked in collaboration with the DAR for the definition of the actions to be undertaken in the area of rural development.

92. Furthermore, in 1961, a Superior Council of National Advancement was instituted. At the provincial level, it is oriented towards a programme of action by the provincial councils by defining annual regional development projects and programmes and making sure that these projects and programmes are conceived in a way which utilizes to the maximum the labour potential of the population.

93. Mozambique has adopted the concept of integrated rural development. Integrated rural development in Mozambique is defined as the co-ordination of all activities operating for the improvement of living conditions in the rural areas. It involves linkages and communication between different sectors (agriculture, health, education, water, construction, finance, planning) in the planning and implementation of development activities. The concept has been incorporated in the National Plan.

94. There is a National Rural Development Authority for policy guidance and intersectoral harmonization of rural development activities which is located in the Ministry of Agriculture. The DNDR where appropriate co-ordinates with other sectoral ministries during the planning and implementation phase of the programmes.

95. 80,000 million Metical ($87.5 million) were allocated in the National Budget for agricultural development during the period covered by the National

Plan as the Government contribution, an 192,000 million Mt ($210 million) were allocated from external sources. One hundred per cent of these sums was utilized. The objects of expenditures were mainly infrastructure, salaries, equipment and agricultural inputs. 70 per cent of the targets was achieved.

96. Zaire has adopted the concept of integrated rural development and it has been incorporated in the National Plan. There is a national authority for rural development which is responsible for policy guidance and intersectoral harmonization of planned activities which is located in the General Secretariat of the Department of Agriculture, Rural Animation and Community Development. No further details were provided about its activities. The period covered by the last National Plan is 1986-1990.

97. In Algeria, the big farms were owned by the French prior to independence in 1962. After 1962, these large farms were made into co-operative style farms, while very small farms continued to exist as well. Generally, industrial development had been given a higher priority than agricultural development, a fact which was to a large extent responsible for a significant rural exodus. The rural areas have a high birth rate and consequently a high proportion of young people, who often leave the rural areas to find employment in the urban centres.

98. To stem the rural exodus and to keep people on the land, a new system was instituted in 1988. What was previously government-owned land is now given to young people to cultivate for their lifetime. Other incentives are also provided, such as access to credit. One problem which has not yet been solved is the question of inheritance of this land given by the government for the lifetime of the farmer. As this system is new, there is still no experience as to how it will stand the test of time.

99. In Zimbabwe four ministries are concerned with rural development activities: The Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare, the Ministry of Agriculture, the Ministry of Community Development and the Ministry of Local Affairs.

100. Rural development is given a high priority in Nigeria. The Directorate for Food, Roads and Rural Infrastructure is attached to the President's Office and gives direct financing to rural projects. It is 100 per cent government financed.

101. In Nigeria, the ministries responsible for rural development are the Ministry of Social Development and the Ministry of Agriculture.

102. Nigeria has over 90,000 rural communities. Efforts are being made to raise their standard of living, using two different strategies. The first is by community self-help efforts, the other is through direct government intervention.

103. However, the problems of rural development are far from solved in Nigeria. Some of the major problems are: 1. Involvement of the community itself, 2. Leadership problems, 3. Lack of resources. In the communities, the beneficiaries need to be involved, but the main obstacle is finding the type of organizational structure which would enhance the participation of the rural people. As for leadership, there are often problems with vested interests, inadequate or lacking leadership and different interests which need to be tackled, since leadership is an important component of successful rural development. Resources are lacking because there is little or no private or public investment in the rural areas and it is difficult to obtain donations.

104. Nigeria now has a free market economy and no Marketing Board, and farmers are therefore able to sell their produce at market price. The government subsidizes inputs such as fertilizers and improved varieties of seeds.

105. To reduce urban migration the government is trying to develop rural areas by providing rural infrastructures such as roads and water. Investors are encouraged to invest in rural areas to reduce rural exodus. Most farmers own their land and people are attached to the rural areas of their origin even if they have migrated to cities, and they help the rural areas by investing in their areas of origin. Migration between rural and urban areas goes both ways nowadays, not only in the direction of urban centres, but unfortunately the rural infrastructure is not yet sufficiently attractive to keep rural people from moving to the cities.

106. In Chad, four sectors are given priority in the national development plan: 1. agro-forestry, pastoralists, fisheries, beef production, etc.; 2. social affairs: education, health, social welfare, women's promotion, the environment; 3. public enterprise: restructuring, liquidation, etc.; and 4. transport. This plan is for the years 1990-1995.

107. Priority is given to community development at the Ministry of Social Affairs and Women's Promotion (promotion féminine). Within this ministry there are three departments: social affairs, women's promotion and administrative affairs. Within the first two there is a division of community development. There are at present seven women's rural organizations (foyers

féminins ruraux) and it is planned to add five more every year. There are 20 social centres in Chad, eight in the capital N'Djamena and 12 in the 14 prefectures, two prefectures still being without centre. These centres are financed by external donors (NGOs).

108. The Office Nationale du Developpement Rural in the Ministry of Agriculture is trying to study the ways to progress and to modernize, and also to promote and spread new ways of rural development.

109. Three ministries, Social Affairs, Agriculture, and Commerce and Industry have been given the task to diffuse the techniques of community action. Projects to develop co-operatives and pre-co-operatives have been financed by ILO and UNDP and are based in the Ministry of Commerce and Industry. Rural production co-operatives are single-objective organizations based in one village which work on the commercialization of its products, usually cotton. Part of its money is used for community development or put at the disposal of the village council. Each peasant sells his harvest directly to the co-operative and keeps a small amount of the harvest for his own use. There is a fixed price for cotton in Chad. As for cereals, the Office Nationale des Céréales tries to stabilize their prices. Chad is almost self-sufficient in cereals.

110. The Ministry of Public Works is responsible for all roads and transport facilities, but a project is now under submission to the government in which the responsibilities will be divided. Primary roads, meaning inter-urban roads, will still be under the Ministry, but rural and secondary roads will fall under the jurisdiction of other ministries, depending on the primary use of the road, e.g. for agriculture or tourism. Village roads will be under the villages themselves.

111. The Ministry of Social Affairs is working on a project to popularize rural stoves through the rural women's organizations and trying to introduce butane gas as an alternative to fuelwood. To reduce the price of butane gas, it is planned to remove the tax and to make it more easily available. These measures are necessary to reduce the consumption of wood as fuel. One reason for the high cost of butane gas is the fact that it has to be transported from Cameroon or Nigeria.

112. In Senegal a new agricultural policy is being applied since 1986 whose basic philosophy is to give more responsibility to the farmer and to attain food self-sufficiency in the country. Previously the farmer simply performed farming tasks, but now the farmer is to be the master of production. For example, previously the government gave seeds to the farmers, but now the farmers are

responsible for keeping a supply of seeds for the next harvest rather than depending on the government to provide them. Fertilizers and pesticides are sold at prices subsidized by the government. The government is giving higher prices on food crops as an incentive to higher production in order to reach the goal of food self-sufficiency.

113. Previously co-operatives came under La Direction de la Cooperation, but now they are under L'Union Nationale des Cooperatives. This organization comprises farmers, fisheries and livestock raisers at village, district, regional and national levels.

114. To halt the rural exodus and to bring back people to the rural areas, the breeding of livestock, growing of fruit crops and garden farming are encouraged. These measures also are designed to fight unemployment, even if they provide only 2-3 months of temporary employment. People are encouraged to be self-sufficient and to form groups to start projects such as poultry farming. These groups are formed even by unemployed university graduates. Financing can be obtained the Groupe Opérationnel d'Etudes et de Concertation (GOPEC), which is under the Ministry of Social Affairs but operates on an inter-ministerial basis. From 1979 to 1989 174 projects were formed with a participation of 5,409 youths in all 10 regions of the country. A group consists of 7-19 youths who for a nominal fee can participate and receive assistance from GOPEC. GOPEC periodically sends a group from the Centre D'Expansion Rurale (CER) which is composed of technicians and specialists from several ministries to the rural areas to assist the groups with their projects. These specialists teach the rural population new methods, guide the youths in their endeavours and co-ordinate projects.

115. The government policy is to bring villagers to think of their own projects and not to impose them from outside. Once the project idea has been forwarded the CER specialists will help in the implementation and in obtaining support from government agencies.

116. There are also integrated projects such as the one known as "SN 88". This project is designed to help alleviate women's chores, e.g., by replacing pestles with mills. This easing of the women's burdens gives here more time for other tasks such as farming. Also, women's groups can gain a profit from a milling machine installed in their villages, making them producers and in turn giving them more time and freedom. Previously these machines were distributed free of charge, but now they are given away on interest-free credit, repayable in 2-3 years.

117. Senegal is encouraging communal and national solidarity, especially amongst its youth, because this traditional solidarity is seen as the saving grace of the country. Therefore the young people are encouraged to stick to traditional values in order not to become alienated and too individualistic in the society they are living in.

118. Senegal realizes that people's habits cannot be changed quickly, and that therefore one must move slowly in introducing new methods. The people need to be convinced that the new system is better and then helped to follow it. The aim is to get them to be the masters of their own destiny.

119. Senegal's population growth rate is 2.35 per cent. Therefore, family planning is encouraged, but not through the limitation of the number of births, but by the promotion of planned births. Senegal's aim is to promote healthy women and children through its family planning projects.

120. In Egypt rural development has been given a high priority ever since 1940, when 80 per cent of the population was rural. Now the proportion of rural dwellers is 56 per cent of the total population, because of urban migration and because what were formerly villages have now grown into towns.

## POPULAR PARTICIPATION AND DECENTRALIZATION OF THE NATIONAL BUREAUCRACIES

121. The trend in most member States seems to be toward decentralization of the national bureaucracy and to thus increase the possibilities of popular participation in the decision-making process.

122. People's participation has been incorporated in the national legislation in Ghana. It has been incorporated at three distinct levels: district, regional and national. The present focus is on the establishment of a firm structure at the district level. For this purpose District Assemblies have been established. Currently progress is being made in the establishment of lower level structures within the districts such as town/area councils and unit committees.

123. The national bureaucracy in Ghana has been partially decentralized. High calibre personnel has been posted to the district level. These officers are to serve as links with their parent National Head Offices and respond to the District Assemblies for directives. For example, officers of the Department of

Community Development at the districts who as line agency officers reported to their National Director through the Regional Director, now do not use this channel of communication. They now report directly to the District Assemblies through the District Administrative Office.

124. Botswana's national and district planning system is so structured that there is a high level of integration built in at all stages. Through the processes of regular and systematic consultation the Annual District Plans, six year District Development Plans, and the annual national Project Review and the six year National Development Plan all contribute to a development implementation process which is comprehensively integrated.

125. People's participation has been incorporated in national legislation. Botswana is a fully democratic multi-party state with national Parliamentary and local Council elections held every five years. The House of Chiefs operates as a second level of the legislative system where Ministers answer to the motions and questions of the traditional leaders.

126. The District Councils are statutory elected bodies with political and administrative responsibility for providing certain basic services in their communities.

127. The traditional village meeting system (the Chief's Kgotla) is still widely utilized for disseminating public information and consulting particularly with the rural community.

128. Hand in hand with these political structures are a wide- ranging and active set of official committees. The Village Development Committees (VDC) is elected in the Kgotla, and is paid a sitting allowance and provided with the day to day advice of the Village Extension Team (VET) comprising technical field staff stationed at village level.

129. The District Development Committee consists of all the Heads of Departments at district level, while at central government level an interministerial committee structure is co-ordinate at the implementation level by the Ministry of Local Government and Lands and at a policy level by the Rural Development Unit in the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning.

130. The national bureaucracy has been functionally decentralized. The District Commissioner (DC) is the government's representative in the rural districts (at Under-Secretary level), appointed jointly by the Office of the

President and the Ministry of Local Government and Lands. The DC chairs the District Development Committee and co-manages the District Planning system with the Council Secretary. The DC is also an ex-officio member of the District Council and has several relatively high level professional staff.

131. Other sectoral departments are partly decentralized with regional or district senior staff, with some professional specialist support staff.

132. People's participation has been incorporated into Zambia's national legislation. The 1980 Local Administration Act provides for the creation of institutions to enhance people's participation at all levels. At grassroots level are Sections and Branches. These form Wards which form District Councils. At regional level are Provincial councils and the National councils at national level. Decision-making and implementation follow this hierarchical bottom-up and top-down arrangement. Participation is enhanced by people freely electing their own representatives, e.g. at Ward level are Ward Development Committees of which all chairmen are members of the District Council in their respective areas of residence. Other members of the Ward Development Committees serve as councillors on the District Co-ordination Committees which have sub-committees such as Finance. At provincial or regional and in some cases also at district level, technocrats interact with politicians to exchange views on matters pertaining to rural development, e.g., the Provincial Co-ordinating Committee is among its members. The Provincial Planning Unit, a team of professional staff, serves as the secretariat.

133. The national bureaucracy has been functionally decentralized. The 1980 Local Administration Act integrates the three structures of government- the Party, Central Government and Local Government through creation of District Councils to which substantial powers and functions of the Government have been delegated. District Councils are responsible for performing almost all the functions of government in the district including all functions previously carried out by Local Government Councils and most of the functions previously carried out by Central Government Departments.

134. The wide range of functions of the District Councils include a number of broad general functions such as:

1. To administer the affairs of the district in the following fields:

(a) political;

(b) economic;

(c) scientific and technological;

(d) social and cultural;

(e) defence and security.

2. To ensure an effective integration of the primary organs of the party and other organs of local administration in the district:

3. Save as otherwise provided in the Act, to serve as the final authority to whom all organs of local administration shall be answerable in respect of matters related to local administration.

District Councils have been empowered to:

(a) make by-laws to control or restrict the activities of people and organizations in the district;

(b) make policy-decisions or prepare programmes which provide a framework for the development of the district;

(c) direct and supervise staff employed in the district;

(d) decide how the district's funds should be spent and ensure that they are spent properly; and

(e) give general leadership and guidance to all individuals and organizations in the district.

135. The implication of this is that administratively, all public service staff at provincial level are directly responsible to the Provincial Permanent Secretary whereas at district level they are responsible to the District Executive Secretary. However, they are technically responsible to their respective Central Ministry Headquarters. In matters of finance, the Provincial Permanent Secretary is the Financial controller of funds in the province while at district level this is the responsibility of the Financial Secretary.

136. People's participation has been incorporated in national legislation. In Tanzania, while there is no consensus about the precise components of the

participatory approach to planning and implementation, it is conceived as including some degree of administrative decentralization, development of community and grassroots organizations, bottom-up planning, promotion of appropriate technology and implementation of projects that meet the felt needs of the community. The emphasis is on the involvement of the people in all the major decisions that have a bearing on their lives.

137. In conformity with the practice prevailing in Tanzania, one can identify the following types of people participation.

(i) Consultation: This types of participation involves the exchange of views with people's representatives or leaders, or with sections of the community. Most times this type of participation constitutes giving information without actually allowing the people and their representatives to discuss and make decisions. Rather, such consultation seeks the approval of the people on decisions that have already been made elsewhere. It asks people to agree to implement what has been decided for them.

(ii) Financial Contributions: Another type of participation is financial contribution. Many times villages are asked to contribute in cash or in kind either prior to or during the implementation of a project.

(iii) Self-help: This kind of participation requires not only that people participate by contributing their labour as well as financial and material resources, but also that they fully take part in the identification, design, planning, implementation, management and evaluation of the programmes and the projects in which they are involved. This kind of participation assume that the people have a problem which they want to solve themselves through their own resources, including leadership and management skills. Government and non-governmental organizations and international aid agencies may provide assistance, but this help is intended to supplement the people's efforts and not to take their place.

138. Tanzania's participatory philosophy has always emphasized the third type of participation, since this is what is meant by "self- reliance". Tanzania feels that people have to develop themselves, and that they have to do things for themselves by using the resources at their disposal, including their own labour - power, leadership, management and organizational skills, local natural resources and finance. People must be responsible and accountable for their own development.

139. Since 1972 the Central Government has been decentralized into regions where there is devolution of power and decision-making from the centre (i.e. ministries) to the regions. As at 1990 there are 20 regions in Tanzania mainland. Also the system of Local Governments has been re-established since 1983/84 following their abolition in 1972. At present there are 19 urban councils and 84 rural district councils with some statutory rights, autonomy and independence towards development issues.

140. Popular participation has been incorporated into national legislation. Popular participation in socio-economic development, both in urban and rural areas is guaranteed by the Article 88 of the Constitution and by the Dahir (law) of 30 September 1976.

141. Participation by the population is manifested in the following institutions:

- the Parliament, particularly the Agricultural Commission
- the national councils and commissions, in which representatives of the people participate
- the Federation of the Chambres of Agriculture
- the National Unions of Co-operatives
- the Producers' Unions
- the Trade Unions

At the regional and provincial level:

- the Regional Consultative Assemblies
- the Provincial and Prefectural Assemblies
- the Chambers of Agriculture
- the Provincial Co-operative Unions

At the local level:

- the Communal Councils

- the Local Commissions for Agricultural Development
- the Administrative Councils of Labour Centres (agricultural development centres)
- the co-operatives.

142. In 1976 the Law of Local Collectives was promulgated. This is implemented by a process of decentralization at all levels and by deconcentration of central administrations to the provincial and regional levels. The regional and local institutions thus have been reinforced, which therefore permits a better participation by the population in development. After achieving independence, there has been a constant tendency toward decentralization of the bureaucracy, both horizontally and vertically. The vertical decentralization consists in bestowing to public and semi-public organs the tasks of performing public services which previously had been assumed directly by the State. This is the case in the sectors directly tied to the needs of the population such as electricity, drinking water, post and telecommunications.

143. Parallel to this functional decentralization, Morocco has seen an accelerated evolution toward territorial decentralization, notably in communal and local matters. A first step was taken in 1960 which resulted in an advanced degree of decentralization by 1976, which has given communities the responsibility of taking decisions in matters of economic and social development of the local population. This is legislated in article 30 of the community charter of 1976. It has also instituted an executive and an autonomous administrative plan of action. The final aspect of decentralization is in the local fiscal law which was adopted recently and which augments the sources of revenue of the communities, while at the same time relieving their tax burden.

144. The national bureaucracy has been functionally decentralized. One aspect of decentralization and deconcentration consists of bringing the administration and the administered closer together. Local administrative services were created which were given certain powers by the central bureaucracy. The deconcentrated services function better than when everything was in the hands of the centralized bureaucracy. Local collectives were formed and the participation of the population in the management of public affairs increased.

145. People's participation has been incorporated in the national legislation of Mozambique. Mozambique has a long history of peoples' participation and a network of party officials with the function of mobilizing the population exists at all levels of society. People's participation and opinions are sought on all topics relating to rural development (health, education, water, construction and agriculture). The agricultural extension network is based on peoples' participation.

146. The national bureaucracy has been functionally decentralized. There has been investment into institutional and staff strengthening in sectorial offices at a provincial level. It is planned that this will follow through to a district level and already selected district offices have received institutional support.

147. Popular participation in rural development has not been formally incorporated in Zaire's national constitution or other legislation. The national bureaucracy has not been functionally decentralized.

148. In the rural areas of Egypt, Community Development Associations are formed. These are voluntary organizations owned and run by the members of the community; in fact the Associations "are the community itself." In Egypt the beneficiaries of rural development efforts are given the opportunity to articulate the priorities they wish to have taken into consideration.

149. The Nigerian Government encourages the formation of self-help organizations in the communities, which are given help by the government in the form of technical assistance, training, advice, grants, etc. Some communities have achieved encouraging results with this approach and were able to set up health centres, schools, roads and cottage industries.

150. Direct government intervention is mainly in the form of provision of roads, water supplies, fertilizer, for which the government agencies have the responsibility, and are meant to be short-term projects depending on the availability of funds.

151. To halt the rural exodus and to bring back people to the rural areas of Senegal, the breeding of livestock, growing of fruit crops and garden farming are encouraged. These measures also are designed to fight unemployment, even if they provide only 2-3 months of temporary employment. People are encouraged to be self-sufficient and to form groups to start projects such as poultry farming. These groups are formed even by unemployed university graduates. Financing can be obtained the Groupe Operationnel d'Etudes et de

Concertation (GOPEC), which is under the Ministry of Social Affairs but operates on an inter-ministerial basis. From 1979 to 1989 174 projects were formed with a participation of 5,409 youths in all 10 regions of the country. A group consists of 7-19 youths who for a nominal fee can participate and receive assistance from GOPEC. GOPEC periodically sends a group from the Centre D'Expansion Rurale (CER) which is composed of technicians and specialists from several ministries to the rural areas to assist the groups with their projects. These specialists teach the rural population new methods, guide the youths in their endeavours and co-ordinate projects.

152. The government policy is to bring villagers to think of their own projects and not to impose them from outside. Once the project idea has been forwarded the CER specialists will help in the implementation and in obtaining support from government agencies.

## NON-GOVERNMENTAL ORGANIZATIONS

153. The involvement of national and international non-governmental organizations in rural development is encouraged by the Governments of Ghana, Botswana, Zambia, Tanzania, Morocco, Mozambique and Zaire. No country responded that it did not encourage the participation of non-governmental organizations in its rural development efforts.

154. In Ghana there is a high foreign donor involvement in development projects, and many NGOs are trying to set up projects in Ghana. The umbrella organization for NGOs is called Ghana Association of Private Voluntary Organizations in Development (GAPVOD), and is under the Ministry of Mobilization and Social Welfare.

155. The Sasakawa Global 2000 Project, which is active in several African countries, including Ghana, is backed by Messrs. Ryoichi Sasakawa, Jimmy Carter and Dr. Norman Borlaug, recipient of the Nobel Peace Prize for his leading role in the Green Revolution in Asia. The work of the Project is mainly concerned with providing improved varieties of maize and sorghum to Ghanaian farmers on a credit basis. In the early stages it was successful in raising yields to a significant degree, but recently the repayment rates of the loans has dropped due to a decline in the market price of maize. The Project has also developed a one-axle bicycle trailer in Japan which is to be introduced to rural areas in northern Ghana, where bicycles are relatively common. However, the question of the cost of local production and the local availability of parts had not been settled by mid-1990.

156. In Botswana, external donors usually carry 40 per cent of the expenditures for development projects and the Government carries the remaining 60 per cent. These are the national figures for 1983-1985, as the breakdown by rural-urban was not available.

157. The external donors normally provide 43 per cent of the project personnel. This figures however represents the number of non-citizens in the national economy and not necessarily just the expatriate project personnel.

158. In Zambia, usually 88.3 per cent of rural development project/programme expenditures is carried by external donors and 11.7 per cent by the Government.

159. External donors usually carry 60 per cent of the expenditures for rural development projects in Tanzania. The government carried 40 per cent of the expenditures.

160. The external donors usually provide 20 per cent of the project personnel. Fifty per cent of the expatriate personnel carry out advisory services, 20 per cent implement the project, 20 per cent co-ordinate the project and 10 per cent work in other functions.

161. An estimated 80 per cent of rural development projects is carried by outside donors and 20 per cent by the Government of Mozambique. External donors provide an estimated average of five per cent of project personnel. Two-thirds of them work in an advisory capacity, about one fifth in implementation, and the remainder in co-ordination and other functions.

162. The average percentage of expenses furnished by outside donors for rural development projects and programmes in Zaire is 48.5 per cent. The government provides the remaining 51.5 per cent. Outside donors normally provide 2 per cent of project personnel. Five per cent of expatriate personnel have a consultative function, one per cent have a co-ordinative function, and ten per cent have other functions. Outside personnel do not have an executive function.

163. The Nigerian Government gives grants to certain projects, but often they are minimal, and self-help is encouraged. The non-governmental organizations, private development agencies and social development agencies involve the local people in their projects and thus encourage popular participation. The United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) assists NGOs, and there is also a

great effort from local agencies to provide technical assistance, advice and in stimulating projects.

## LAND AND WOMEN'S ACCESS TO IT

164. Legislation was enacted in Botswana, Zambia, Tanzania, Morocco and Mozambique to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to land. By contrast, in Ghana and Zaire no such legislation was enacted.

165. Rural women have the right to own land in Ghana. No legal provisions exist which are specific to either rural or urban women. Furthermore, no specific provision regarding ethno-cultural identities exists.

166. In Botswana, the National Policy for Rural Development (1973), the National Policy on Economic Opportunities (1982) and the National Policy on Land Tenure (1985) are some of the most basic legislative instruments which have guided policy towards more equitable access to these productive resources.

167. On the issue of land the most vital aspect was the establishment of the independent land authorities, the Land Boards, in 1970, and their continued strengthening by staffing, training and equipping, with the support of the policies listed above and other more specific legislation.

168. The most typical problems faced by all these institutions are shortage of skilled manpower and thus a slower pace of extending the services to the remoter rural areas resulted. Complexity of the forms to be filled and in the process of acquiring the necessary productive inputs, affected access to credit and land in some cases. Rural education and literacy levels have also added some constraints to the extension of these facilities to all. Negative political influences on the processes of productive asset distribution have been minimal.

169. In Botswana, rural women have the right to own land. Although one of the male heirs customarily inherits most of the major assets, in many families, particularly in recent years, the daughters may inherit some arable land and a share of the livestock, albeit in smaller quantities.

170. In Zambia, the legislation enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to land were Articles 3 and 4 of Zambia (State Lands and Reserves) Order of 1964;

Article 3 of Zambia (Trust Land) Order of 1964; and by Section 4 of Land (Conversion of Titles) Act of 1975. These Articles vest land absolutely in the President who holds it in perpetuity for and on behalf of the people of Zambia. Being the custodian of the land, the President can make grants or dispositions of land in reserves to Zambians and district councils (statutory administrative bodies) for periods of up to 99 years. In case of a missionary society or a charitable organization, he can grant or dispose of land to such a society or organization for a period of 33 years. In any other case he cannot exceed the period of up to five years. If it appears to the President that it is in the general interest of the community as a whole, he can grant a Right of Occupancy of up to 99 years to a non-Zambian and demand rent for the use of the land. In Trust Land areas, while Zambians and District Councils can own land on title, non-Zambians are also allowed provided they qualify as investors or are approved by the President as provided for under the Land (Conversion of Titles) (Amendment) (No. 2) Act of 1985. This is usually done in consultation with relevant District Councils or chiefs under whose areas the land falls.

171. The then Ministry of Lands and Natural Resources was created, under which the Commissioner of Lands is empowered, through power delegated to him by the President, to allocate land on title. The Commissioner has also delegated part of this responsibility to District Councils.

172. No survey has been carried out to determine the difference before and after the enactment of the Act.

173. The only obstacle experienced so far has been the reluctance by some tribal chiefs to support the full implementation of the Act. This is mainly because chiefs have always believed that they own land. They had to be convinced that the change in policy to encourage people to have title deeds had nothing to do with impinging on their control of their subjects but rather it was a way of providing easy access by eligible candidates to loans and other such facilities due to security of tenure the land would provide.

174. Act 5, the Intestate Succession Act, 1989 and Act 6, the Wills and Administration of Testates' Estates Act, 1989 provide for the administration of the estates of persons dying not having made a will, and administration of the estates of persons dying having made a valid will respectively. As regards inheritance of property under customary arrangements, different customs are practised from place to place but where the administration of the estate by the surviving spouse is challenged, such a person may seek legal protection. For instance, Section 8 of the Intestate Succession Act states that "where the

intestate in the case of a monogamous marriage is survived by a spouse or child or both of them, as the case may be, shall be entitled equally and absolutely to the personal chattels of the intestate". Personal chattels in this case means clothing, articles of personal use or adornments, furniture and furnishing, appliances, utensils and all other articles of household use or decoration, simple agricultural equipment, hunting equipment, books, motor vehicles and consumable stores. Likewise, Section 10 of the same Act states that "where the intestate is survived by more than one widow or a child from any of them, then each widow or her child or both of them shall be entitled:

(a) absolutely to the homestead property of the intestate; and

(b) in equal shares to the common property of the intestate.

175. Except where land had been acquired and was held under customary law at the time of death of the intestate, this Act shall apply.

176. Legislation to provide equitable access to land was enacted in Tanzania. Rural women have the legal right to own land. There are two types of land ownership and inheritance recognized by law (Land Ordinance) in Tanzania:

(i) Customary land tenure recognizes traditional ownership and inheritance in the rural areas for the more than 120 tribes present in the country. This type of ownership ceases when the second type of ownership (granted right of occupancy) becomes operational. Generally there are very few tribes which give right to women to own land.

(ii) Granted right of occupancy is issued by the government, stipulating ownership, time and inheritance. Anyone can own, or inherit land provided he/she meets conditions stipulated in the right of occupancy.

177. In Morocco, rural women have the right to own land. The customary and legal provisions for women to own land are: the constitution and the right of inheritance. National law, inspired by Islamic law, permits a woman to dispose of her goods independently of those of her husband. She can also undertake financial transactions and sell goods. A woman has the right to inherit from her parents, her husband and her children.

178. The legislations enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to productior resources were the following:

- The Agricultural Investments Code, Dahir (law) of 25 July 1969;

- The Dahir of 4 December 1961 regarding the organization of agricultural credit;

- The Dahir of 29 December 1972 regarding the attribution to farmers of lands forming part of the State's private property;

- The Dahir of 20 September 1976 regarding the organization of the population's participation in the development of the forestry economy;

179. The implementation mechanisms for the above were:

- For the Agricultural Investment code:

  1. The Agricultural development fund;

  2. The interministerial, provincial and local commissions.

- For agricultural land:

  1. The interministerial and provincial commissions for agrariar reform;

  2. The national forest council, the provincial forest councils.

180. In Mozambique, legislation was enacted to provide equitable access to land. However, the implementation of the provisions relating to ownership of land is not yet smooth. However, some title deeds to land have been distributed.

181. Rural women have the right to own land, but women only inherit if there are no male heirs.

182. In Zaire, there has been no legislation enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to production resources such as land.

183. Rural women do not have the right to own land in Zaire.

184. There is a critical shortage of land in Zimbabwe which hampered the resettlement programme in this country. The Lancaster House Constitution which gave the country its independence has recently expired, and the government is considering appropriating idle land from the owners of large estate farms. The problems involve defining what is idle land and also the question of ownership of the land, since some farms are owned by British citizens and taking their land away could have implications on relations with the United Kingdom, such as in the case of foreign aid.

## RURAL CREDIT

185. In Ghana, Botswana, Zambia, Tanzania, Morocco and Mozambique legislation was enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to credit. However, in Zaire, no such legislation has been enacted.

186. In Ghana, legislation was enacted to establish Rural Banks. The Rural Banks started operation in 1976. There are now about 140 banks established. However, an embargo in the establishment of new branches. The Rural Banks operate as community banks with defined areas of influence which were not specified in the replies to the questionnaire. Problems were mainly encountered due to the absence of qualified personnel and the need to "sell" the concept of the unit bank.

187. In Ghana surveys with regard to credit found the following:

(i) Savings in rural areas of the country are considerable;

(ii) However, financial assets with formal financial institutions are not an important part of the average assets;

(iii) The prevailing banking infrastructure and the role of interest rates are reasons why formal deposit facilities are not accepted by the rural population;

(iv) Informal savings arrangements are a significant type of financial savings opportunity.

188. Steps have been taken to provide access to credit by the poor. Steps have also been taken to provide credit to women in particular. There are however no different collateral requirements for women or women's groups

as compared to men. Credit is granted for investment activities such as farming tools, spraying machines etc.

189. Legislation enacted in Botswana to provide equitable access to credit include the National Policy for Rural Development (1973), and the National Policy on Economic Opportunities (1982) are some of the most basic legislative instruments which have guided policy towards more equitable access to these productive resources.

190. Steps have been taken to provide access to credit by the rural poor. Steps have also been taken to provide credit to women in particular.

191. Money, goods, livestock and land are possible as collateral under the terms of the Hypothecation Act. However some limits are applied in practice to the use of moveable assets such as livestock, in order to minimise bad debts.

192. Basically requirements of collateral for women are not different except in the case of the Financial Assistance policy which grants women 15 per cent more than men, thus reducing their contribution or need for collateral to borrow accordingly. Loans from the National Development Bank, below P20,000 ($10,500) attract lower interest rates. In certain categories of business rural loans are also at slightly reduced interest.

193. The commercial banks have 52 rural branches. The National Development Bank has 18 regional and district offices while the Co-operative Multipurpose and Marketing Societies are operating in 77 localities most of them rural, with a further 26 branches in smaller centres and 34 credit unions. In the case of the credit unions many of the most active are in urban areas but serving the poorer sections of the community and with links to family members in the rural areas, particularly through "transfers" which are well documented in several incomes surveys.

194. There are at least three sources of credit for agricultural and other small productive businesses to acquire capital goods and some working capital. Typically the types of activity include small scale arable production (de-bushing, fencing, fuel or hire for ploughing, seeds, fertiliser, etc.), purchase of livestock, sewing and knitting machinery, cement block making equipment, bread ovens, carpentry and welding equipment and many other types of small scale industry.

195. Of the rural population, 22 per cent lives within 5 kilometres of a credit bank. 78 per cent lives within 20 kilometres of a credit bank.

196. The Zambian Government has since independence passed several statutory instruments aimed at creating institutions that would avail credit to farmers to ensure equitable access to credit as a production resource by farmers. Such statutory instruments include those that were passed to create the Agricultural Finance Bank (AFC) in 1967 and the creation of the Lima Bank in 1986 by combining the functions of AFC and the Agricultural Development Bank. Other such institutions created by statutory instruments include the Zambia Co-operative Federation (Finance Services for credit), the Lint Company of Zambia, the National Tobacco Company and the Credit Union and Savings Association.

197. Implementation of this policy measure is carried out through a decentralized system of the bank and of some of these mentioned institutions. This means that there are offices at regional and in some cases at district levels to serve the needs of farmers.

198. No survey has been carried out to determine the difference between the period before and after the year of legislation but observable indications show that there has been an increase in the number of people who have taken up farming partly due to credit facilities made available to them.

199. The main obstacle experienced has been in terms of logistical support at field level which has led to poor recovery of loans by the bank.

200. Steps have been taken to provide access to credit by the poor. Steps have also been taken to provide credit to women in particular.

201. There is no collateral required for the poor farmers to be eligible for loans. The only requirement is that they have to be bona fide farmers who have shown willingness to take farming seriously. The same applies to women. There is no difference in the collateral requirements for women.

202. The Lima Bank, established in 1986, is the most decentralized bank created to serve the needs of poor farmers although it also provides credit to large-scale farmers. It has eighteen branches scattered all over the country. The efforts of the bank are supplemented by those of other commercial banks such as Barclays Bank through its Lima Loan Scheme, the Zambia National Commercial Bank through its Munda Programme, the Bank of Credit and Commerce and other government sponsored parastatal lenders such as the Zambia Co-operative Federation - Finance Services (ZCF), the Credit Union and

Savings Association (CUSA), the Lint Company of Zambia (LINICO), and the National Tobacco Company (NATCO).

203. For seasonal loans, credit is provided in form of seed, fertiliser, and insecticides for cotton growers whereas for medium term loans farmers receive oxen, ox-drawn plough, and other ox-drawn implements.

204. Steps have been taken to provide credit to the poor in Tanzania, though they were not stated in the information provided.

205. In Morocco, all peasants have access to agricultural credit. The Caisse Nationale de Crédit Agricole (CNCA - National Fund for Agricultural Credit) puts at the disposition of the farmers credit for infrastructure, financing schemes, etc. The collateral requirements are reduced to a minimum for small farmers. Men and women are treated equally with respect to their access to credit and the collateral required. Rural credit is granted for the following enterprises: vegetable production, animal production, forestry production, coastal fishing, purchase of material, land development, hydraulic equipment, construction, purchase of animals, registration fees. There were 165 permanent credit institutions serving the rural poor in 1988 and 162 mobile credit outlets in 1988. However, measures have been taken to provide credit to women in particular. Credit is provided for the following activities: Short term: cereal and vegetable production, market gardening, plantation maintenance, other vegetable production, livestock feed, poultry raising, animal production and others. Medium and long term: construction, rural housing, land improvement, hydraulic equipment, mechanization, weaving equipment, animal traction, animal rent, plantations, agro-industries and others.

206. The forms of collateral required are the binding ('solidaire') guarantees by one or two persons who are solvent and of good moral standing. Credit is granted for the following activities: commerce in rural areas, artisanal activities, rural tourism and all other rural activities, also for the purchase of materials for agriculture poultry farming, animal hire or draught animals.

207. The CNCA has made efforts to finance agriculture through its offices which cover the whole country. There are:

- 46 regional offices (caisses);
- 113 permanent local offices;

- 162 seasonal offices;

- 7 banking counters.

208. The legislations enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to production resources were the following:

- The Agricultural Investments Code, Dahir (law) of 25 July 1969;

- The Dahir of 4 December 1961 regarding the organization of agricultural credit;

- The Dahir of 20 September 1976 regarding the organization of the population's participation in the development of the forestry economy;

209. The implementation mechanisms for the above were:

- For the Agricultural Investment code:

  1. The Agricultural development fund;

  2. The interministerial, provincial and local commissions.

- For agricultural credit: the CNCA

  1. The Central Credit Commission;

  2. The regional and local credit committees.

210. Legislation was enacted in Mozambique to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to credit.

211. The credit fund for agricultural rural development (CCADR) was created in 1987 to promote investment in rural areas by providing credit for agro-industrial investment and commercialization of crops and livestock.

212. Information about the credit scheme was disseminated to the rural areas and to farmers through the extension network of the Ministry of Agriculture and by Agricom, the state agricultural trading organization. Farmers were told to make all credit applications at their local branch of the BPD (Peoples' Development Bank). There were some difficulties with the implementation of credit scheme and in practice it was unable to provide credit to the peasants.

213. There were several unspecified political, administrative and sociological problems encountered in the implementation of the CCADR credit scheme.

214. Steps have been taken to provide access to credit by the poor. Steps have also been taken to provide credit to women in particular. Normally collateral for credit is land, although in some cases livestock may be used. There is no difference in the collateral requirements for men and women.

215. Credit is provided for small infrastructure projects (such as irrigation schemes), agricultural inputs (eg. tools, seeds, hiring of tractors), small income generating projects (eg. charcoal production, maize milling, sewing). Sometimes credit is not given in money but in kind and paid back in kind. For example seeds are given and peasants repay these after the harvest.

216. In Zaire, there has been no legislation enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to credit. No measures have been taken to provide access by the poor to credit. No steps have been taken to provide credit to women in particular. There are apparently no credit banks which specifically serve the rural poor.

217. Though various approaches to rural development had been carried out in Egypt, the present approach was based on the "Productive Family" concept. Families, even individuals are given credit in the form of tools and other necessities. The repayment of the loan is done in the form of products after six months. There is a three year grace period on the loans without any interest, only a six per cent "administrative cost". The emphasis is on the production of products of a high quality, which can be exported, by small-scale rural industries.

218. There is a Fund for Rural Development which is provided by the government but not controlled by the government.

219. In Egypt women have the right to obtain credit and to inherit land, and are encouraged to start small-scale industries such as handicrafts.

220. Recently the People's Bank was established in Nigeria to provide credit without collateral for income-generating schemes to the poor rural dwellers, and it is hoped that this will accelerate rural development and raise the standard of living in rural areas. The first branches of this bank were established in 6-7 communities. The model for this banking system is the Grameen Bank of Bangladesh.

221. The First Lady of Nigeria is spearheading the welfare of women in the country through the organization Advancement of Rural Women which consists mainly of rural dwellers but also receives contributions from urbanites. Nigerian women have the right to obtain credit.

222. Credit to rural dwellers in Chad had previously been granted by the Banque de Developpement du Chad, and it is hoped that it will take up its work again in 1990. An USA-Chadian organization, Volunteers in Technical Cooperation (VITA) gives credit to small-scale enterprises. Though collateral is required, the government is studying the possibility to eliminate the requirement for collateral for small groups and even individuals.

223. In Senegal, credit is given by the Caisse Nationale du Crédit Agricole, the interest rates being determined on a case by case basis. Often the repayment conditions are easy in order to take the situation of the farmers into account, e.g. climatic conditions which are beyond their control could have affected their harvest, making them needy of credit.

224. The provision of credit to women is being encouraged. There are now 3,500 women's groups with a total of 440,000 members. Attempts are now being made to establish a bank run by the women themselves. One alternative is for each group to deposit at least 22,000 CFA Francs ($78) in the Caisse Nationale de Crédit Agricole as a guarantee for future loans. The second alternative would be to make a deposit as a share in the Senegal branch of World Women Banking, which is a credit institution based in the USA. The third alternative being studied is to establish a new subregional bank for women together with the West African Women's Association (WAWA) in the 16 member countries. It is envisaged that this bank could reach 1 billion CFAF ($3,570,000) in capital if all women's groups contribute, and it would be used only for the financing of women's projects. This bank would take the aims of ECOWAS into account, not just Senegal's national plan, and would co-ordinate subregional activities and promote subregional integration. Furthermore, the duplication of projects could be avoided. Each country could work on different projects, and only the successful ones would be exported to other countries.

There would be three types of programmes: short-, medium- and long-term. The short term programmes would be part of the national plans of action, in which women have a role to play. Medium term programmes would take 1-5 years and would comprise 2-3 countries. Long term programmes would first entail feasibility studies of 1-3 years which would be to the benefit of all ECOWAS member States. These programmes should be functional within 10 years of the start of the feasibility studies and should run indefinitely.

## RURAL WATER SUPPLY

225. Legislation was enacted in Botswana, Zambia, Tanzania, Morocco and Mozambique to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to water. In the cases of Tanzania and Morocco, the legislations were not further described. In Ghana and Zaire, no such legislation was enacted.

226. In Ghana, the provision of water in rural areas is being carried out either through the digging of wells or through the installation of piping. Borehole drilling is carried out in every region of the country. Agriculture and health are also high priority areas. Wells are not dug for free, but a token charge is levied on the population in order to give them a sense of responsibility for the facilities. The extended borehole system is also a step in the campaign to eradicate the guineaworm which affects many rural dwellers. The provision of uninfested water is expected to eliminate this parasite.

227. In Botswana, the National Policy for Rural Development (1973), the National Policy on Economic Opportunities (1982) and the National Policy on Land Tenure (1985) are some of the most basic legislative instruments which have guided policy towards more equitable access to these productive resources.

228. The implementation machinery that was established to facilitate access to water involved the decentralisation of authority to the District Councils to provide village water supplies and was set up at the beginning of the 1980's. Central government provides considerably subsidised support both financially and technically through the Department of Water Affairs and more directly through the Technical Division of the Ministry of Local Government and Lands.

229. The most typical problems faced by all these institutions are shortage of skilled manpower and thus a slower pace of extending the services to the remoter rural areas resulted. Complexity of the forms to be filled and in the

process of acquiring the necessary productive inputs, affected access to credit and land in some cases. Rural education and literacy levels have also added some constraints to the extension of these facilities to all. Negative political influences on the processes of productive asset distribution have been minimal.

230. The Water Act, Cap. 312 of the Laws of Zambia, 1948 is the most significant legislation relating to water resources and quality control. Under this act and subsequent amendments, ownership, control and use of all water resources are vested in the President.

231. The Water Development Board established by the Act as a judicial body appointed to administer provisions of the Act relating to:

(i) allocating water resources;

(ii) granting rights for use of water; and

(iii) granting rights to enable persons to exercise the right to water.

232. The Board is made up of the Director of the Department of Water Affairs who serves as the Chairman and representative of relevant authorities and the public, i.e. the Department of Agriculture, the Ministry of Lands, Water and Natural Resources, the Zambia Electricity Supply Corporation and two non-governmental members selected from the public.

233. The Department of Water Affairs also provides technical and secretarial support to the Board and is also charged with the general responsibility for water supply, conservation and prevention of pollution of public water. Other government ministries and departments charged with legal functions and other responsibilities for water resources and quality control include:

(i) the Ministry of Power, Transport and Communication (for meteorological services and transport policy);

(ii) the Division of Decentralization; and

(iii) the Ministry of Health (for public Health policy services).

234. Whereas the Department of Water Affairs is empowered to supply water throughout the country, District Councils are empowered by the same Act and

also by the 1980 Local Administration Act to supply water to residents in their respective areas.

235. In approving applications for water rights by farmers, the Department of Water Affairs is authorized to pay a subsidy of one third of the cost of building approved dams and weirs. However, in case of private water, land owners have the right to use this water for domestic purposes only without applying for rights.

236. No study has been carried out to obtain the results between the period before and after the enactment of the Act.

237. The major obstacle faced in the implementation of the Act has been the lack of sufficient qualified manpower especially in district councils to effectively carry out the provisions of the Act.

238. In Mozambique, legislation was enacted to establish an authority to provide equitable access to water through the National Programme of Rural Water Supply (PRONAR). The implementation of equitable access to water is proceeding smoothly.

239. In Zaire, there has been no legislation enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to water.

## RURAL TECHNOLOGY POLICIES

240. Various attempts to improve rural technology in the region have been made, including better linkages between the institutions which design the technology, the producers of the technology and the end-users, i.e., the farmers themselves.

241. There is a national technology policy in Ghana. Measures have been taken to improve or adapt existing rural and agricultural technologies or develop new ones. Technology consultancy centres have been set up. Technologies are disseminated through organizations such as Development and Application of Intermediate Technology (DAPIT) and various non-governmental organizations. All institutions developing rural and agricultural technologies are members of the National Board for Small Scale Industries which is responsible for establishing policy guidelines for appropriate technology.

242. Rural technology is promoted in every region of the country through a policy which links research with practical application, under the auspices of the Technology Transfer Centre (TTC). The TTC, which is a research body, is linked with the University of Science and Technology. The middle-level technology which is developed at the University can be disseminated through an organization known as GRATIS. GRATIS has set up technology reproduction centres in all regions of the country where artisans are located and raw material can be provided. It provides the necessary equipment to the artisans for a moderate fee in order to help them produce the new technologies. This system attracts artisans because they are given the means to manufacture new technologies and ultimately profit from their products.

243. Botswana has a national technology policy. Measures have been taken to improve or adapt existing rural and agricultural technologies or develop new ones.

244. Considerable research and development activities have been undertaken over the past twenty years both in the government research station and at least three NGO or government supported institutions. Most notably the Botswana Technology Centre and the Rural Industry Innovations Centre have done some highly applicable work in several fields.

245. Some of the areas of development include plough and planter technology; water pumping by wind, solar and animal draft; wood and coal stoves; grain milling; bread ovens; tanneries; biogas; solar water heating and electricity; and several others.

246. These new technologies are spread nationwide by courses, through the media, adoption by the government and NGO extension services, special seminars and sales promotion by the private sector.

247. Zambia has a national technology policy. Measures have been taken to improve or adapt existing rural and agricultural technologies and develop new ones.

248. Considering the importance attached to technology development, the Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology was expanded to accommodate the Science and Technology aspects. The University of Zambia, where the Technology Development Advisory Unit is based, falls under this Ministry. This Unit together with other institutions such as the National Council for Scientific Research (NCSR), the Engineering Section and the Adaptive

Research Planning Teams (ARPTs), both under the Ministry of Agriculture are concerned with appropriate technology development, improvement of the existing technology and dissemination of these technologies to the beneficiaries who are mainly the rural poor. Some of the agricultural technologies developed include the foot pumps, groundnuts and maize shellers and ox-charts using cheap materials. There are also food processing technologies that make use of traditional crops in the brewing of liquor, e.g., use of sorghum to make liquor and buns instead of using maize and wheat respectively. Most of these technologies aim at reducing the labour constraint currently facing small scale and subsistence farmers in their attempt to increase production.

249. Dissemination of these technologies takes place at field days and demonstrations conducted by the Adaptive Research Planning Teams at selected farmers' plots, through exhibitions at agricultural shows which take place annually, and through the Research and Development Co-ordination and User Liaison Section which disseminates information on any technology released by organizing seminars, workshops and symposia.

250. The Agricultural Research Committee made up of Directors from the Ministry of Agriculture receives briefing by institutions developing technologies on the latest technology releases. They are then expected to take this information to the beneficiaries using field workers/researchers or other possible avenues. Likewise field workers present problem areas to those who develop technologies through their directors meeting as a committee. Also, institutions carrying out research on technology development and/or improvement have their directors serving as members of the Advisory Committee to the Ministry of Higher Education Science and Technology.

251. Steps have been taken Tanzania to adapt existing rural and agricultural technologies or develop new ones.

252. There is a national technology policy in Morocco. Morocco has a Directorate for the Popularization of Production Techniques. Measures have been taken to improve or adapt existing rural and agricultural technologies and to develop new ones. Two types of measures have been taken to improve and develop rural technologies, by creating:

- The National Institute of Agricultural Research
- The Directorate for the Agricultural Popularization and Agrarian Reform

253. The improvement of rural technologies is the responsibility of the National Institute of Agricultural Research, which has eight centres of research throughout the country. A master plan for research has been elaborated. It strives to improve the organization of research in order to constantly respond to the needs of the farmers. Important improvements have been made particularly in the improvement of plant material and the adaption of cultivating techniques to ecosystems and the protection of plant cultures.

254. The diffusion of new techniques and results of agricultural research is carried out through a network of 43 provincial directorates of agriculture, 9 regional offices, 121 agricultural labour centres and 166 agricultural development centres. Furthermore, commercial societies and agro-industrial plants spread new technologies in the course of their specialized activities. Recently a master plan for the diffusion of technology has been drawn up and is in the process of execution. It deals with the reorganization of the diffusion structures, improvement of the methods of diffusion, continued training of the extension workers and an improved liaison between research, diffusion and farmers.

255. All institutions have representatives at the regional, provincial and community levels to disseminate rural technologies. The responsibility for these institutions rests with the Ministry of Agriculture which determines the policy to be followed and which gives them their means of action.

256. There is a national technology policy in Mozambique. Measures have been taken to improve or adapt existing rural and technologies or develop new ones. There have been surveys collecting information about traditional agricultural technologies used in rural areas. From this survey and an examination of local needs a package of new technology was developed to be introduced into rural areas. This technology is area specific taking local needs and conditions into account.

257. Dissemination is carried out through the rural extension network and local authorities, for example, the District Directorates of Agriculture.

258. There is a strong link between the institutions development new technologies and the dissemination mechanism. In some cases they are the same organization or different institutions within the same Ministry.

259. Zaire has no national technology plan or policy. No measures have been taken to improve or adapt existing rural and agricultural technologies or

develop new ones. At the national level, there is no policy on technology. However, there is an effort at the sectoral level to create a National Agricultural Mechanization Service (Service National de Mecanisation Agricole, S.N.M.A.) which includes appropriate technologies and animal traction.

260. The Nigerian Government is promoting tractors for rural farms, though the hand hoe remains the main tool used on farms. There is not much animal traction in Nigeria. The government has a deliberate science and technology policy. The Ministry of Science and Technology tries to motivate the indigenous development of science and technology, also in schools, etc. Tractor hire is another way of gaining access to more sophisticated technology for farmers without having to buy it. The People's Bank encourages the purchase of gari grating machines, milling machines and grinding machines by rural dwellers.

261. There are two technology projects in Chad, one being Appropriate Technology for Women and the other Appropriate Food Technology (Technologie Alimentaire Appropriée), sponsored by UNIFEM, UNDP and the government. The need to identify and spread the technologies needed for development, such as grain milling machines, is well recognized in Chad. Weaving projects for women are financed by the Agence de Cooperation Culturelle et Technique, with the help of UNDP and the government. Both projects are based in N'Djamena and are designed to raise the value of artisanal production, such as weaving and dyeing of cloth.

262. In Senegal, there is a high level of development of rural technology. Tractors are used on the large estates, and farmers generally want tractors. Most farmers use ploughs pulled by oxen and very few use only hand hoes. The richer farmers can buy tractors with cash, but it is also possible to buy on credit, with a deposit of for example, 1 million CFAF ($3,570) for a tractor costing 5 million CFAF ($17,855).

## FOOD SELF-SUFFICIENCY POLICIES

263. Food self-sufficiency policies exist in several member States, while others do not state an official position in the replies to the questionnaire. Most countries have taken concrete steps to improve the supply of food and have provided incentives to food producers.

264. There is a national policy in Ghana to achieve and maintain food self-sufficiency. Measures taken to improve productivity and to achieve and maintain food self-sufficiency include:

- Improved guarantee prices;
- No import restriction on agricultural imports;
- Improvement of accessibility through feeder road construction;
- Improving techniques of reducing post-harvest losses.

265. There is no national policy to achieve and maintain food self-sufficiency in Botswana, but there is a National Food Strategy. For many years agricultural policy had, as its major objective, the attainment of national food self-sufficiency. This is reflected for instance, in both the "National Food Strategy" (1985 and the Report on "Progress in Agrarian Reform and Rural Development" (1988).

266. By 1990, however, it has been accepted that such an objective is not appropriate to Botswana's dryland conditions, at either the household or national level. The major objective is now national and household food and income security, in which the productive activity will be better matched to the location, not just concentrating on food crops.

267. There has for some years been a high producer price for sorghum covered by high consumer prices, to encourage production. It has now been agreed that this was counterproductive in the long run, since it encouraged a consumer shift away from sorghum to maize and wheat, so that the country now produces excess sorghum and loses heavily when exporting it.

268. All farm products are to be marketed at their true market value without subsidisation. Encouragement to farmers will continue through the reformulated ALDEP programme of subsidized technical input, appropriate research and extension specifically aimed at assisting the small farmer (those with no draught power and very low incomes) in the Model 1 ALDEP group.

269. In an attempt to achieve food self-sufficiency, the Zambian Government has, since independence embarked on plans to encourage small-scale and commercial farmers to produce more food for domestic consumption and a

surplus for sale. This has been done through provision of incentives, both price and non-price incentives. For price incentives not until June 1989, all producer prices of agricultural produce were controlled. Currently, except for maize, the government just sets floor prices of most agricultural crops in order to give farmers a strong negotiating base for their crops. In essence, a floor price usually reflects the cost of production.

270. Other incentives include:

(a) a US$0.5 dollar per bag foreign exchange incentive to producers of maize, wheat, wheat seed, soybeans, soybean seed and barley, above a certain minimum amount;

(b) there is also a US$0.15 dollar per bag foreign exchange incentive to producers of Virginia tobacco in excess of 5,000 kg and US$0.75 dollar foreign exchange incentive for producers of maize seed in excess of 500 x 50 kg bags;

(c) there is a retention of 50 per cent on earnings from agricultural exports;

(d) expatriate farmers are allowed to externalize 12.5 per cent of their tax profit annually, provided they support their exchange control application with audited accounts;

(e) for a period of three years, farmers are exempted from payment of selective employment tax chargeable on employers in respect of emoluments (salaries, fees, wages, bonus, etc) payable to their employees who have an employment permit;

(f) income from agriculture is taxed at a flat rate of 15 per cent. Before arriving at taxable income a farmer is allowed to deduct expenses incurred on land development, legal fees, conservation, provision of boreholes and surveys;

(g) a holder of a certificate of incentives is entitled to a rebate on duties and sales tax paid on imported inputs used in producing agricultural exports;

(h) development allowances of 10 per cent is offered to growers of tea, coffee and citrus fruits for the year in which the expenditure is incurred;

(i) farming machinery and equipment are depreciated at 50 per cent of the cost or a straight line basis over a period of two years; and

(j) in addition, the government offers numerous incentives to agro-industries through the Investment Act of 1986 (No. 6).

271. Other measures taken include the following:

(a) dissolving of the Agricultural Marketing Board (NamBOARD) and reallocation of its functions i.e. fertilizer procurement and distribution to Co-operative Unions to the Nitrogen Chemicals of Zambia (NCZ) and grain marketing including imports and inter-provincial distribution to the Zambia Co-operative Federation (ZCF);

(b) streamlining the marketing system by encouraging the strengthening of marketing in rural areas through establishment of primary co-operative societies and strengthening the existing ones as well as establishing District Co-operative Unions;

(c) construction of storage sheds and rural depots in strategic collection and distribution centres and maintenance of rural feeder roads to ensure adequate and steady supply of inputs and easy distribution or collection of produce; and

(d) rationalization of the credit delivery system through creation of the Lima Bank and Encouraging other commercial institutions and government sponsored parastatals to avail credit to farmers.

272. In Zambia, food is mostly taken to mean maize. This is because its product, mealie meal is most widely consumed both by the rural and urban population. To facilitate the productivity of small scale farmers in major crops of which maize is one of them, farmers are availed with seasonal loans to purchase inputs such as seed, fertilizers, animal draught power implements and for cotton growers insecticides. To ensure that farmers are practising modern methods of agriculture, extension messages are disseminated to them through

extension workers. These usually take the form of technical recommendations generated by the Adaptive Research Planning teams (teams of subject matter specialists) concerned with providing solutions to production related problems facing farmers.

273. Tanzania has a National Food Strategy which is an agricultural strategy that seeks a balance between food and cash crops, livestock and fisheries for the short, medium and long term. It covers the period 1980-2000 divided into three phases: - short term 1980-1985, medium term 1985-1990 and long term 1990-2000.

274. The strategy concentrates on food production as it relates to the agricultural sector as a whole and to the overall socio-economic environment and policies that affect agriculture, livestock and fisheries. That is it covers aspects of production, processing, marketing, distribution and consumption as well as the institutional framework concerning each component and the expected impact of future demands on the whole system.

275. Strategy and policy recommendations are based on a quantitative analysis of supply possibilities and likely demand changes for twenty-four crops in addition to livestock, poultry products and fish. Input requirements, irrigation potential, the transport infrastructure and the need for future capacity expansion in processing, storage, transport and marketing have been analyzed. An in depth analysis has been carried out of such support services as credit, research, extension and training.

276. In the short term a wide range of issues were handled directly by the Central Government. These include:

(i) Improvement of the transport and storage infrastructure to facilitate the movement and storage of food grains and inputs at reasonable cost.

(ii) The timely distribution of adequate amounts of fertilizer, farm inputs and tools for small-holder production.

(iii) Rationalization of the existing pricing policy to promote more efficient and economic food production.

(iv) Clarification of the role of the co-operative unions, including their planned integration with the marketing parastatals within acceptable limits of total operational costs.

(v) Steps to improve the supply of consumer goods to rural areas.

277. Medium-term development of the food and agricultural sector called for:

(i) An increase in the supply of farm energy to achieve a balance among hand tools, ox-ploughs and tractors. Emphasis was placed on oxenization.

(ii) A more vigorous approach to extension and training.

(iii) Proper linkage to the development of agro-industries.

(iv) Strengthening and streamlining of rural credit institutions and simultaneous improvement of repayment performance.

(v) Determination and implementation measures to reduce pre- and post-harvest losses.

(vi) A much stronger early warning system to increase the Government's capacity to deal with food shortages and improve food security.

278. In the 1990's the food strategy will concentrate on expanding the irrigation system so that benefits of high yielding variety packages - particularly for rice-may be fully realized. This effort will be supplemented by a continued drive for oxenization and for selective tractorization. Other elements of the long-term development of food and agricultural sector include:

(i) Promotion of a rural/urban balance so that people engaged in food production are not the victims of discrimination.

(ii) Assessment of the additional storage required for both commercial and food security, including strategic grain reserves.

(iii) Greater emphasis on strengthening the relation between agricultural production and agro-industries.

(iv) **Adoption of resources conservation measures in areas with poor carrying capacity.**

279. To monitor the national Food Strategy closely, full-time co-ordination cells were established in the Ministries of Agriculture, Livestock Development and Natural Resources and Tourism. These co-ordination cells have the responsibility of preparing detailed investment proposals, assisting in resource mobilization and of monitoring the implementation of priority Food Strategy Projects. They also prepare progress reports, and regularly advise the Government through an interministerial steering committee of Principal Secretaries on policy matters requiring urgent decision during implementation.

280. Food self-sufficiency continues to be a priority objective of Morocco's agricultural development policy. A number of programmes comprising projects and long-term measures has been elaborated. Several sectorial programmes have been conceived and put into practice since 1970, for example plans concerned with cereals, plant oil, sugar, dairy products, meat, etc.

281. The measures taken to achieve and maintain food self-sufficiency are:

1. Food: The adoption of a cereals plan, notably the intensification of production of wheat. The vegetable oil plan, the sugar plan, the dairy plan.

2. The increase of the productivity of small farmers by The introduction of improved seeds; the intensification of the use of fertilizers; expansion of irrigated land and intensification of production on irrigated land; the popularization of viable cultivation methods.

3. Measures to encourage production: The facilitation of access to agricultural credit. The distribution of subventions. The fixing and annual increase of agricultural prices at the to production level (wheat sugarbeet and sugarcane, sunflower, rape seed) to provide an incentive to farmers.

282. The productivity of small farmers is inferior to that of the large farms despite the access granted them to State subsidies for the purchase of inputs and to improve agricultural land. They can also benefit from subsidized prices initiated by the State to permit the farmers to sell their production at the best market conditions.

283. Mozambique has a national policy to achieve and maintain food self-sufficiency. Rural development has been given priority, and special attention has been given to selected districts (Priority District Programme). In addition support to the small family farmers has been prioritized as these are collectively the largest producers of the nations food supply. Projects operating in rural extension, agricultural input supply and agricultural commercialization have all been encouraged within Mozambique. For some key agricultural crops prices have been liberalized under the Programme for Economic Rehabilitation thus giving production incentives to farmers.

284. Zaire has a national plan to achieve food self-sufficiency. The measures taken to achieve and maintain food self-sufficiency have succeeded in the development of a 'Programme for Food Self-Sufficiency (Programme d'Autosuffisance Alimentaire, PRAAL), supported by certain projects such as the PRONAM (Programme National Manioc - National Manioc Programme) and the PNR (Programme National Riz - National Rice Programme), etc.

285. Zimbabwe is normally a food surplus producing country, but it does happen that some parts of the country suffer from a deficiency. In this case the surplus from other areas is used to cover the deficit in others. The inhabitants of the disadvantaged areas are then also not required to pay for other services, such as health care, while those in the advantaged areas are. Though this is deemed unfair by some, it is the policy generally followed to help the areas suffering from scarcity. As resources are limited, the government has to make a decision as to how to distribute them among the various regions of the country.

286. Despite the drive toward food self-sufficiency in Senegal, some farmers are not able to save seeds for the following year's harvest. These farmers can buy seeds from a stock kept by the government for this purpose. The seeds are intentionally not given free of charge in order to make the farmer understand that it is his responsibility to keep enough seeds for his own use in future.

287. The Egyptian Government reserves the right to purchase food from farmers at prices lower than the world market prices because the government subsidizes the farmers in other ways, such as by providing chemical fertilizers and other farm inputs at low prices.

## CONCLUSIONS

288. The information gathered shows that the concept of integrated rural development has been generally adopted by member States. The development programmes of the member States mentioned in this study show that there are serious efforts being made to develop the rural areas, though the actual success rate was difficult to determine. There are different approaches to rural development, but the underlying message is that most governments are aware of the need for rural development and have acted to ensure that the rural population is not neglected in their national development programmes. The definitions of rural areas showed general overlap. The demarkation between urban and rural was often based on such criteria as the number of people living in a community, whether the predominant activity was agricultural or not, or the availability of certain common facilities in the community.

289. Most countries showed a marked increase in population, while at the same time indicating that the percentage of rural dwellers was slowly declining. In other words, the number of people actually living in rural areas is increasing, but their percentage of the total population is decreasing. Only one country, Zaire, showed an increase in both the number and the percentage of people living in rural areas. A number of countries stated that quite a large portion of their population was living under the absolute poverty line, which is a strong reminder that the persistent problem of raising the standard of living even to the minimum level acceptable in the country itself has not been solved.

290. Some countries have a national rural development commissions or authority which is located variously in the Office of the President, as in Tanzania and Zambia, the Ministry of Agriculture as in Mozambique, or the Ministry of Finance and Development Planning as in Botswana.

291. In most countries studied here, the national bureaucracy has been deconcentrated and/or decentralized in order to ensure that the rural population has a greater say in matters concerning it, and to ensure that the ears of the government are "closer to the ground". A number of countries also state that popular participation is given a high priority in its rural development efforts. In some cases, genuine changes have been made in the decision-making process, while in others the process seems to be less advanced.

292. There are differences in the laws and customs governing the ownership of land by women. In some countries women have the same rights as men, while in others they are able to own land but with certain restrictions, and in

yet others they are not allowed to own land at all, which would point to serious problems in those cases where the male head of the household is absent and the woman would not be able to use the land as collateral for credit, to give but one possible example.

293. Legislation has been enacted in most countries surveyed to ensure more equitable access by the rural population to land, water, credit and other resources.

294. Efforts are being made to, for example, grant credit to the rural poor on a larger scale than was previously the case, as can be seen from the information from, for example, Zambia, Morocco and Nigeria. Although the member States are clearly aware of the need of the rural population for credit at favourable conditions, it is not clear from this study that the efforts made so far have made a significant impact. Depending on a country's social structure, women are in some cases given different, usually easier, collateral requirements than men on loans from lending institutions. The trend in the region seems to be that the number, and type, of lending institutions seems to be expanding to more easily serve the rural population, particularly those who otherwise would not have access to credit.

295. It is evident from the figures presented here that most countries still depend on outside donors and project personnel to finance and to some extent run their rural development projects. The highest figures were in Zambia (88 per cent) and Mozambique (80 per cent), and the lowest figures for outside participation were in Tanzania (60 per cent) and Zaire (48 per cent) . This points to a persistent lack of self-reliance in the management and financing of development projects and programmes. All countries which answered the questionnaire stated that they encouraged the involvement of national and international non-governmental organizations in rural development.

296. In most countries surveyed here there seem to be increased efforts to ensure that appropriate technology is developed and made available to the rural farmers in order to enhance their productivity. It is not evident if this technology has been disseminated to the majority of farmers who are in need of it, or only to a small portion of the rural population.

297. There are also efforts to ensure that food self-sufficiency is achieved and maintained, however difficult this may be in practice. However, the available documentation indicates that no African country has achieved food self-sufficiency. This is illustrated, inter alia, in the FAO publication "The Impact of

Development Strategies on the Rural Poor", which forms part of the series entitled "World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development: Ten Years of Follow-Up, 1979-1989." It states that "the declining trend in per capita availability of food supplies has been widespread in Africa..." (p. 117). In this connection it is worth noting that the concept of food self-sufficiency is not necessarily limited to the country level, but could be pursued also at the sub-regional or regional level. This aspect was unfortunately not adequately addressed in the questionnaire, nor was there any indication of such a trend in the replies.

298. It is encouraging to note that the countries of Africa are increasingly aware of the need for rural development and that efforts are being directed toward improving the standard of living in the rural areas. Nevertheless, the evidence points towards the continued deterioration of the rural areas of the region, with a large proportion of the rural population still suffering from poverty and its correlates, such as undernourishment, lack of adequate technology, lack of access to land and credit, etc. As the above-mentioned document points out, "in Africa...there has been a complete deterioration of the situation" (Ibid, p. 116) as far as even the fulfilment of basic nutritional requirements is concerned. Another area of concern has been that "in Africa, the rate of decline of arable land per capita of agricultural population in the 1980s has been even more widespread than in Asia."(Ibid, p.106)

299. Although awareness of the numerous problems of rural development has been strengthened, and member States have indicated their willingness to tackle them, the growing magnitude of the problem of providing basic needs and an acceptable standard of living to the rural population cannot be evaded. There is still a long way to go before one can claim even moderate success in solving it.

## BIBLIOGRAPHY


Republic of Ghana: Programme of Actions to Mitigate the Social Costs of Adjustment, The Government of Ghana, November 1987.

R. Chambers and D. Feldman, Government Paper No. 2 of 1973: National Policy for Rural Development: The Government's Decisions on the Report on Rural Development, Government Printer, Gaborone, May, 1973.

Republic of Botswana, Report on the National Food Strategy, Rural Development Council, Rural Development Unit, Ministry of Finance and Development Planning, Gaborone, Botswana, August 1985.

ECA, Final Report: Intergovernmental Regional Workshop on Evaluation of Rural Development Experiences in Africa (ERDEA), held at ECA, Addis Ababa 19-24 November 1990, ECA, Addis Ababa, December 1990.

Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations, Report of the World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development, held in Rome, 12-20 July 1979, FAO, Rome, 1979.

FAO, The Impact of Development Strategies on the Rural Poor, World Conference on Agrarian Reform and Rural Development: Ten Years of Follow-up, 1979-1989, FAO, Rome, 1989.

## ANNEX

# QUESTIONNAIRE ON RURAL DEVELOPMENT

For questions marked with an asterisk (*) please give answers on a separate sheet of paper.

1. ECA has been advocating the concept of integrated rural development (IRD) through, inter alia, several resolutions and recommendations starting in 1969 for the consideration of member States.

   a) Did your country adopt the concept? ☐ Yes ☐ No

   b) *If yes, what definition of IRD was adopted by your country?

   c) Was the concept incorporating in the National Plan? ☐ Yes ☐ No

   d) Was any legislation enacted to establish an authority for carrying out structural and institutional adjustment to provide equitable access to production resources, such as:

   Land ☐ Yes ☐ No Water ☐ Yes ☐ No Credit ☐ Yes ☐ No

   If yes to any of the above:

   e) * What legislations were carried out?

   f) * What was the result over the base period, i.e., the year of legislation and/or enforcement? Please give quantitative statements.

   h) * What obstacles, e.g., political, administrative and sociological, were faced in implementation?

2. People's participation in rural development is one of the frequently repeated principles in various resolutions, publications and meetings of ECA.

   a) Has People's participation been incorporated in the national constitution or other legislation?
   ☐ Yes ☐ No

   b) *If it has been incorporated, what is the institutionalized modality of people's participation at all levels: local, district, regional, national?

c) Do rural women have the right to own land? ☐ Yes ☐ No

d) * What are the customary and legal provisions for inheritance of land and livestock by rural women, if any?

3. a) What percentage of the latest National Plan outlay was earmarked for rural development? _____%

b) What period is covered by the latest National Plan? 19____ - 19____

c) What period was covered by the latest completed National Plan? 19____ - 19____

d) Of the percentage allocated to rural development in the latest completed National Plan, how much was actually allocated in the National Budget during the period covered by the National Plan?

_____% = US$ _____ = Local currency _____

e) How much of it was utilized? _____% = US$_____ = Local currency _____

f) * What were the physical targets or objects of expenditures of rural development

g) What percentage of the targets - physical and otherwise - was achieved? _____%

4. a) What percentage of rural development project/programme expenditures is usually carried by the external donors? _____% What percentage by the Government _____%

b) What percentage of project personnel do the external donors usually provide? _____%

c) What percentage of the actual project functions were carried out by the expatriate personnel?

Advisory: _____% of expatriate project personnel
Implementation: _____% of expatriate project personnel
Co-ordination: _____% of expatriate project personnel
Other: _____% of expatriate project personnel

5. a) Is there a National Rural Development Commission/ Authority or similar body for policy guidance, intersectoral harmonization of planned activities in the rural sector and co-ordination?

☐ Yes ☐ No

b) Where is this office located? Please tick the appropriate box

☐ In the President's Office

☐ In the Prime Minister's Office

☐ Other, please specify _____

c) *What is the relationship of the National Rural Development Commission or similar body to the National Planning Board/Commission? Which body has the right to make the final decisions in matters concerning rural development?

d) *Do the sectoral ministries concerned with rural development report to the National Rural Development Commission (or similar body)? Does the National Rural Development Commission have the right to make policy decisions affecting these sectoral ministries?

6. a) Has the national bureaucracy been functionally decentralized? ☐ Yes ☐ No

b) *If yes, what steps have been taken to decentralize the bureaucracy? How has power been delegated within the decentralized bureaucracy? Please provide concrete examples.

7. Is the involvement of national and international non-governmental organizations in rural development encouraged by the Government? ☐ Yes ☐ No

8. a) Were one or more socio-economic surveys, including non-quantitative research, conducted to find out the priorities of the rural people? ☐ Yes ☐ No

b) Were one or more statistical surveys conducted to assess the changes in socio-economic indicators over a base period of time? ☐ Yes ☐ No

c) *What were some of the findings of the surveys? Please be specific.

9. a) Have steps been taken to provide access to credit by the poor? ☐ Yes ☐ No

b) Have any steps been taken to provide credit to women in particular? ☐ Yes ☐ No

c) *What steps have been taken to improve and develop rural and agricultural technologies?

d) *How are these technologies disseminated?

e) *What is the link between the institutions developing the technologies and the dissemination mechanism?

11. a) Is there a national policy or plan to achieve or maintain food self-sufficiency? ☐ Yes ☐ No

b) *What measures have been taken to achieve or maintain food self-sufficiency?

c) *How is the productivity of small farmers who produce food facilitated? Are there price incentives or other measures to encourage production?

12. a) *What is the definition of "rural" as used in your country?

b) What percentage of the population was living in rural areas in the following years:

1970 _____% = population of _____ (in figures)
1975 _____% = population of _____
1980 _____% = population of _____
1985 _____% = population of _____
1989 _____% = population of _____

c) *What is the definition of the absolute poverty line as applied in your country?

d) What percentage of the rural population was living below the absolute poverty line in the following years:

1970 _____% = population of _____ (in figures)
1975 _____% = population of _____
1980 _____% = population of _____
1985 _____% = population of _____
1989 _____% = population of _____

13. *Please give any other information relevant to rural development which could assist us in understanding the situation in your country.